

LABBERTON'S UNIVERSAL HISTORY



SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY



Labberton's

Universal History

From the Earliest Times to the Present
—In the Light of Recent Discoveries, with
Genealogical and Geographical Illustrations

BY

Robert H. Labberton



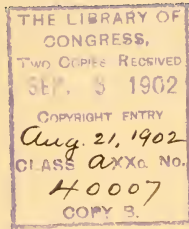
SILVER, BURDETT AND COMPANY

NEW YORK

BOSTON

CHICAGO

1902



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TO
M. H. MESSCHERT,

THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED
WITH AFFECTIONATE ESTEEM, IN GRATITUDE FOR MANY KINDNESSES,

BY
HIS OLD FRIEND

THE AUTHOR.

P R E F A C E .

THE Plates of my former Atlas having been destroyed by fire, I hereby offer the public an essentially new Historical Atlas, accompanied by a compendium of general history, thus forming a basis for that geographic treatment of history which is essential to a clear understanding of human society.

For the last twenty years I have been engaged on a large historical and genealogical atlas, which unfortunately has reached such dimensions as to make its publication impossible.

Many maps and plans from this larger work are published in the present atlas, especially the maps on Eastern History, which are chiefly based on RAWLINSON: Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia, 5 vols. Records of the Past, 12 vols. Journal Asiatique, Revue Archéologique. Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft. Zeitschrift für ägyptische Sprache und Alterthumskunde. SCHRADER: Die Keilinschriften und das alte Testament. SCHRADER: Keilinschriften und Geschichtsforschung. DELITZSCH: Wo lag das Paradies? etc.

In the text my chief aim has been to give, in an attractive form, the leading events of the history of the world (*not* a bundle of particular histories), free from unnecessary detail.

The question, however, arises: What is *unnecessary* detail? It has been duly remarked that "a book which aims to teach just what the pupil ought to remember, and no more, is sure to fail in accomplishing even so much; for history differs from most other branches of study in this—it is impossible to remember isolated facts; they must be connected and illustrated by details in themselves indifferent, so that the mind may get hold of them and retain them. Just as pure nutriment must be mixed with matter which contains no nutriment, but which enables the stomach to digest the food, so in history the facts which are to be fixed in the memory must be combined with facts that are not expected to be retained, but without which the leading events would speedily be forgotten."

I have added to the table of contents, at the end of the main divisions, a brief but carefully chosen general reference to standard works, as an aid to students who may desire to work out for themselves, in greater detail, any special line of investigation.

As this book is designed chiefly for the use of those who know no language but English, I have confined these references strictly to English works, although the temptation has been great to put in some German or French masterpieces, especially when dealing with those portions of history where the supply of English material was either scanty or wholly wanting.

One exception has been made in favor of Lepsius' "Denkmaeler," which not only made the study of Egyptian history possible, but laid the firm foundation for a scientific treatment of the history of the hoary East—the cradle of our race and civilization.

ROBERT H. LABBERTON.

PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION.

My endeavor in this edition is to help my readers comprehend more fully the chief features of that most interesting drama called the History of the World ; and to aid me in my aim to make it so, the publishers have adorned the book with those masterpieces of engraving which could assist in making the text both clear and interesting. These pictures, added to the historical maps and the genealogical tables, form a commentary on the text which will add greatly to its true understanding.

It is necessary for such a book to be brief, but I sincerely hope I have never sacrificed clearness to brevity.

My chief aim has been to give, in an attractive form, to general readers, what they most wish to know, and to students such facts and observations as will serve to bind together, what they have secured by their special studies.

I have added to the table of contents, under each chapter, a brief but carefully chosen reference to standard works, and the most prominent magazine articles, as an aid to such readers who may desire to work out for themselves, in greater detail, any special line of investigation.

When we wish to get an idea of the chief features of a country we mount the heights, whence we can best take in the totality of the landscape. And so we must proceed in history.

Great events and great men are the fixed points and the peaks of history, and it is thence that we can observe it in its totality, and follow it along its highways.

History is one vast drama in which events are linked together, according to defined laws and in which the actors play parts, depending upon their own ideas and their own will.

But men do not make the whole of history ; it has laws of higher origin. Men are unrestricted agents, who produce for it results, and exercise over it an influence for which **they** are responsible. Although the plan has been strictly adhered to, to exclude all such matter as properly belongs to a book of reference, nevertheless it was indispensable to introduce such details as were necessary to show the connection between the great events.

For history differs from most other studies in this, that the most perfect knowledge of the main facts is entirely secondary to the knowledge of their mutual bearing upon each other.

ROBERT H. LABBERTON.

NEW YORK.

NOTE.—The present revision of this work was undertaken and well advanced in 1898 by the learned author himself, when his lamented death in the fall of that year left the task to be carried out by other hands. The publishers have sought to have the revision completed with utmost thoroughness, and the history brought down to the latest possible date.

THE PUBLISHERS.

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CHRONOLOGY.

- A.D. 1886, January 1. Upper Burmah annexed to the British Empire.
 1886, April 8. Home Rule Bill for Ireland introduced.
 1886, August 21. Revolution in Bulgaria.
 1887, March 8. Death of Henry Ward Beecher.
 1887, June 21. Celebration of Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee.
 1887, December 2. Carnot elected fourth President of the French Republic.
 1888, July 3. Pan-Anglican Conference.
 1888, December. Panama Canal Scandal.
 1888, December 20. Battle of Suakin—Arabians defeated.
 1889, March 4. Inauguration of Benjamin Harrison, twenty-third President of the United States.
 1889, March 6. Abdication of Milan, King of Serbia.
 1889, November 15. Brazil proclaimed a Republic.
 1890, March 17. Bismarck resigns the Chancellorship.
 1890, December 15. Cession of Heligoland to Germany by Great Britain.
 1891, Chilian Revolution.
 1891, July. The French Fleet at Cronstadt.
 1891, October 6. Death of Charles Stuart Parnell.
 1892. Behring Sea trouble settled by Arbitration.
 1892, January 20. Reconciliation between the Catholic Church and the French Republic.
 1893. Nansen's Arctic Expedition in the Fram.
 1893, March 4. Inauguration of Grover Cleveland (second term).
 1893, May 1. Opening of the World's Columbian Exposition.
 1894, January 1. Opening of the Manchester Ship Canal.
 1894, June 24. Assassination of President Carnot (succeeded by Casimir Perier).
 1894, July. Beginning of the Chino-Japanese War.
 1894, September 17. Battle of Yalu River.
 1895, August. Atlanta Exposition.
 1895, January 17. Abdication of C. Perier, fifth President of the French Republic (succeeded by Felix Faure).
 1895, February 20. Beginning of the Cuban Revolution.
 1895, July 3. Gladstone retires from political life.
 1895, July 4. Opening of the North Sea and Baltic Canal.
 1895, December 7. Annihilation of an Italian army in Abyssinia at Ambalagi.
 1895, December 17. President Cleveland's Venezuela Message.
 1895, December 29. Jameson's Raid into the Transvaal.
 1896, January 1. Defeat of Dr. Jameson at Krugersdorp.
 1896, March 1. Overwhelming defeat of the Italians at Adowa (Abyssinia).
 1896, April 3. Soudan Campaign.
 1896, May 1. Assassination of the Shah of Persia.
 1896, September 9. Return of Dr. Nansen to Christiania.
 1897, February 8. The Union of Crete and Greece proclaimed at Halepa.
 1897, February 23. The Powers order Greece to withdraw from Crete.
 1897, March 4. Inauguration of William McKinley, twenty-fifth President of the United States.
 1897, April 17. Turkey declares war against Greece.
 1897, April 27. Dedication of Grant's Tomb.
- A.D. 1897, May 1. Opening of the Tennessee Centennial Exposition.
 1897, May 15. Unveiling of Washington's Statue at Philadelphia.
 1897, June 22. Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee.
 1897, August 8. Assassination of Canovas, Prime Minister of Spain.
 1897, August 25. Russo-French Alliance.
 1897, September 14. Ratification by the Hawaiian Senate of a treaty of annexation to the United States.
 1897, September 18. Treaty of Constantinople. Peace between Turkey and Greece.
 1897, November 15. Germany occupies Kiao-chau in China.
 1897, November 19. Great fire in the Cripple-gate district of London.
 1897, November 28. Resignation of the Austrian Cabinet.
 1898, January 1. Charter of "Greater New York" goes into force.
 1898, February 15. Blowing up of the United States Battle-ship *Maine* in Havana harbor.
 1898, April 22. President McKinley calls for a volunteer army.
 1898, April 25. Congress declares that war exists between the United States and Spain.
 1898, May 1. Dewey destroys the Spanish squadron in Manila harbor.
 1898, May 19. Death of W. E. Gladstone (born December 29, 1809).
 1898, May 21. England takes possession of Wei-Hai-Wei.
 1898, July 1-2. American Army, under Shafter, wins victories of El Caney and San Juan near Santiago de Cuba.
 1898, July 3. American fleet, under Sampson and Schley, completely destroys Spanish fleet at Santiago.
 1898, July 17. Santiago formally surrenders to General Shafter, and the Stars and Stripes are hoisted over the city.
 1898, July 25. General Miles, with an American army, lands in Porto Rico.
 1898, August 12. Peace protocol signed by United States and Spain.
 1898, September 2. General Kitchener's great victory over the Dervishes at Omdurman, near Kartoum.
 1898, September 10. Elizabeth, Empress of Austria, assassinated by an anarchist at Geneva.
 1898, December 10. Treaty of peace between the United States and Spain signed at Paris.
 1899, February 1. The American flag was raised at Guam.
 1899, February 16. President Faure of France died suddenly.
 1899, February 18. M. Emile Loubet elected President of France.
 1899, May 18. Universal Peace Conference convened at The Hague.
 1899, July 24. Reciprocity Treaty between United States and France signed.
 1899, July 29. Final sitting of Peace Conference at The Hague.
 1899, October 10. The Transvaal sent ultimatum to Great Britain; reply not being satisfactory the Boers (Oct. 12th) began the war by invading Natal.
 1899, December 11. The President directed General Otis to open the ports of the Philippines to commerce.

CHRONOLOGY.

- A.D. 1899, November 24. News received by War Department that chief officers of the Filipino Government were captured, the insurgents scattered, and Aguinaldo a fugitive pursued toward the mountains.
- 1900, January 16. Contract awarded for construction of the New York City Rapid Transit Tunnel.
- 1900, February 27. The Boer General Cronje and his army capitulated to Lord Roberts.
- 1900, April 14. The Paris International Exposition opened.
- 1900, April 22. The Protestant Ecumenical Missionary Conference began its sessions at Carnegie Hall, New York City.
- 1900, June 5. Pretoria surrendered to Lord Roberts.
- 1900, June 17. Taku forts in China captured by the allies.
- 1900, June 19. First attack on the Legations at Peking by the Chinese.
- 1900, July 13-14. The allies took Tien-tsin, China, by storm.
- 1900, July 30. King Humbert, of Italy, assassinated.
- 1900, September 15. Election in Cuba of delegates to a Constitutional Convention.
- 1900, November 12. The Paris Exposition closed; fifty million visitors had passed through the gates.
- 1900, November 22. President Kruger, of the South African Republic, landed at Marseilles, and began journey to Paris.
- 1900, November 30. Lord Roberts relinquished command of British troops in South Africa to Lord Kitchener.
- 1900, December 7. Tension between Portugal and the Netherlands over South African affairs caused withdrawal of their respective ministers.
- A.D. 1901, January 22. Queen Victoria died at Osborne House, Isle of Wight.
- 1901, January 24. Edward VII. proclaimed King of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India.
- 1901, February 7. Queen Wilhelmina, of Holland, was married to Duke Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin.
- 1901, March 4. William McKinley was inaugurated as President of the United States for a second term.
- 1901, March 13. Ex-President Benjamin Harrison died at his home, Indianapolis, Ind.
- 1901, March 23. Aguinaldo, leader of the Filipino insurrection, was captured by General Funston.
- 1901, May 1. The Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo, N. Y., was formally opened.
- 1901, July 4. Civil Government was substituted for Military Rule in the Philippines.
- 1901, August 5. The Dowager Empress Frederick of Germany died.
- 1901, September 6. President McKinley was shot twice by an assassin while holding a public reception in the Temple of Music at the Pan-American Exposition.
- 1901, September 14. President McKinley died from his wounds at the home of John G. Milburn at Buffalo.
- 1901, September 14. Vice-President Roosevelt took the oath of office as President of the United States.
- 1901, November 7. Li Hung Chang died.
- 1901, November 8. The Isthmian Canal Treaty was signed by Secretary Hay and Lord Pauncefote.
- 1902, May 20. Republic of Cuba inaugurated with Tomas Estrada Palma as President.
- 1902, May 31. Terms of surrender signed by Boer representatives, ending South African War.
- 1902, July 4. Civil government extended to all parts of the Philippines and a general amnesty proclaimed.

INTRODUCTION

HISTORY knows nothing of her own infancy. Everywhere man has preceded history. The beginning of the development of the human race lies beyond the sphere of memory, and so also do the first steps in that development. The early stages of culture are unconscious and unobservant; they are therefore without the conditions which make remembrance possible. The results of man's early activity were preserved in tradition only. The collective stock of slowly acquired handicrafts flitted spirit-like from father to son. It grew out of man's effort to get enough to eat and get protection against cold and heat—just as language with all its uses, grew out of man's effort to communicate with his fellows.

There was an incessant movement toward attempts at mutual understanding, which met at first with occasional and eventually with more frequent and complete success. How high a state of cultivation must this language have reached, before it was able to keep a record of what had gone before!

How many things must man have learned before he could master the art of writing, that slowly developing art, which can be acquired only by ages of gradual experiment! And before a history could be written man must have risen from out a mere collection of tribes to a nation, with a national existence to record, and with rules for the guidance of its political and social life.

Society only reaches historical consciousness when it begins to produce monuments to bear witness to posterity of what is occurring. Monuments form the dial-plate of history. Until they exist, the present alone belongs to a nation, not the past—it exists without a history. The history of antiquity is the description of the forms of culture first attained by the human race.

The oldest realms of which tradition and monuments preserve any information passed unobserved through the earliest stages of culture. Both tradition and the earliest monuments present them at the dawn of their history as already in the possession of a many-sided and highly-developed civilization. In what way these oldest states arrived at their possession we can only deduce from the nature of the regions where those civilizations arose, from the physical character of the nations which developed them, and from their languages.

It seems that the oldest realm grew up on that quarter of the globe which seems least favorable to the development of mankind. It was confined to the narrow strip of mud, which lines both banks of the river Nile, and is bounded by low hills of limestone or the shifting sands of the desert. Amid these unfavorable circumstances the primeval civilization of Egypt was developed. It forms the conclusion of an introductory chapter of human history, a period of unmeasured duration, whose most precious legacy consists of its monuments. It is in this that exists the claim of priority of the history of Egypt above all other histories. History begins with Egypt.

THE HISTORY OF THE EAST TILL THE FOUNDATION OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

EGYPT UNTIL THE EXPULSION OF THE HYKSOS.

SOURCES OF EGYPTIAN HISTORY.

Hieroglyphics.—We owe our knowledge of Ancient Egypt to the monumental inscriptions, and to the remains of the ancient literature of the country.

The discovery of the *Rosetta stone** containing identical inscriptions in hieroglyphics, demotic, and Greek, furnished Fr. Champollion, in 1822, the key to the sense of the monumental inscriptions. His discovery of the hieroglyphic alphabet gave us a clew to the whole of the ancient Egyptian literature. Thanks to this discovery, Egyptian scholars are now able to translate a hieroglyphic inscription with *almost* as great philological accuracy as the work of a Greek or Latin author.

Egyptian writing was at once alphabetic, ideographic, and syllabic. The oldest written monuments we possess exhibit it already formed and complete, showing us the three distinct elements blended into one harmonious whole.

The great bulk of the hieroglyphics in all inscriptions are phonetic, standing generally for letters (sometimes for syllables).

The Egyptians resolved speech into its elements, and expressed these elements by signs which had the exact force of letters. But, instead of confining themselves to one sign or object to represent a certain sound, they, for the most part, adopted several signs to express each elementary sound.

Iconographic signs, designating the object represented, were used in two ways: either they stood alone to represent the object intended, or they followed the name of the object, written phonetically; as we might write

*The French engineer Bussard, while digging entrenchments near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile (1799), unearthed a block of black basalt bearing on one face a trilingual inscription. It proved to be a decree made by the priests, increasing the divine honors granted to Ptolemy V. (196 B.C.), ordering that this command should be engraved in hieroglyphic, demotic, and Greek, and placed in all the chief temples.

the word *horse* and place after it the figure of that animal.

The hieroglyphics are sometimes written in column, one over another, but generally in line, when they are read, from left to right, or from right to left, according to the direction in which the characters face.

The oldest inscriptions are almost entirely written in phonetic signs. Iconographic and syllabic signs were of later introduction.

Egyptian writing is of three distinct kinds, which are known respectively by the Greek names of: Hieroglyphic (*sacred sculpture*), Hieratic (*priestly*), and Demotic (*popular*), or Enchoreal (*native*). The hieroglyphic is that of almost all monuments, and is also found occasionally in manuscripts. The hieratic and the demotic occur with extreme rarity upon monuments, but are employed in the papyrus rolls or *books* of the Egyptians. Both of them are cursive forms of the hieroglyphics.

Monuments and Authors.—Historical literature is rare, if we except such documents as the Harris papyrus, which gives the history of Ramses III. For the annals of the kings we must rather look to the walls of the temples and the tombs. The Epic of Pentaur, poet-laureate of Ramses II., was found on many a temple wall.

In several temples were kept historical records. The history of the native historian Manetho, written in Greek about 260 B.C., was based upon them. It now exists only in fragments and in the epitomes of Eusebius and Africanus.

The earliest, and in some respects the best, Greek authority is Herodotus, who makes us acquainted with the popular stories current among the Greek traders in Egypt during the fifth century B.C. Diodorus (30 B.C.) simply copies Herodotus, adding some worthless material to it.

The true foundation for the critical study of Egyptian history was laid by Lepsius, in 1846,

when he began the publication of his stupendous work, "DENKMAELER AUS AEGYPTEN UND AETHIOPIEN."

Chronology.—The chronological element in the Early Egyptian History is in a state of almost hopeless obscurity, the estimates of the great Egyptologists differing more than 3,000 years. The few dates given in this sketch are generally accepted by the greater part of the Egyptologists.

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE.

The Egyptians and their Neighbors.—Egypt is that part of the Nile valley which is north of the last cataract. In prehistoric times it was occupied by immigrants from Asia, who found the country settled by an aboriginal race, which gradually absorbed the new-comers. Out of different small states were formed two kingdoms: Upper Egypt, or the South-land, *ta-res*; and Lower Egypt, or the North-land, *ta-meh*, including, besides the Delta, the country around Memphis. The inhabitants of the Libyan desert and of the Oases were called by the Egyptians *Temchu*. On the monuments they are always represented as *white* people, in contradistinction to the red Egyptians. Subdivisions of these *Temchu* were: the *Tehenu* in the lands bordering on the Delta, and in the Cyrenaica the *Rebu* or *Lebu*, whence the Greek name for all the *Temchu*, *Libyans*.

Religion.—The divinities of Egypt are pre-eminently Gods of light. They are associated with the sun. Each great city had its own deities, which were united into an hierarchy, at the head of which stood a form of the Sun-god, worshipped as Ptah at Memphis, Amun-Ra at Thebes, Tum at Heliopolis, etc. And since the Sun rises as the youthful Horos, shines in his full strength at mid-day as Ra, and sets in the evening as Tum, the Christian doctrine of the Trinity found its counterpart in Egyptian religion from the dawn of the historical period. By the side of the Sun-god stood Isis, *the dawn*, the mother, sister, wife, and double of the Sun-god himself. Osiris became the most famous Sun-god, and his worship spread gradually over the whole land. Older even than the Sun-worship was the worship of animals, dedicated to the different forms of the Sun-god. They were originally the sacred animals of the clans which first settled in these localities.

Believing that the soul survives death, the Egyptians linked its weal with the preservation of the body, from which they could not conceive its destiny to be wholly severed. Thus arose the universal custom of embalm-

ing. The tombs are the most ancient structures. They contained always a room for sacred services to the dead.

THE OLD EMPIRE OF MEMPHIS.

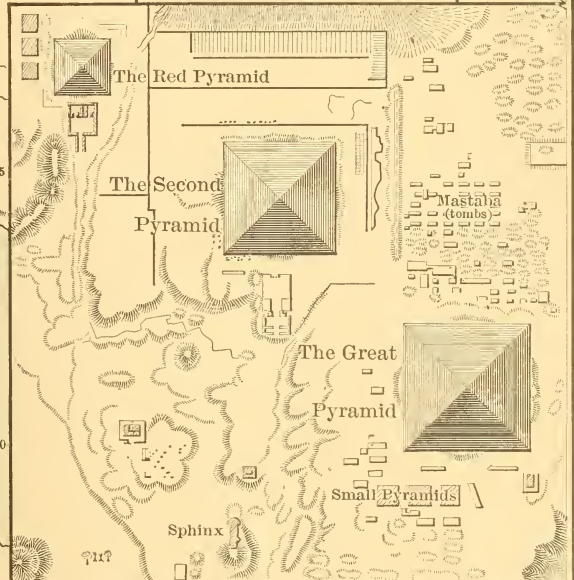
The First Dynasties.—The North and South land were finally united into one monarchy by Menes (about 3200 B.C.), whose descendants ruled over Egypt for more than five hundred years. They formed the 1st and 2d dynasties, and had succeeded in welding Egypt together. With the 3d dynasty the inscriptions begin. To it belongs Snefru (about 2800 B.C.), whose inscriptions in the Wady Magharah tell us that the turquoise mines of Sinai were worked for his benefit, and guarded by Egyptian soldiers. The lofty pyramid of Meidoom is his tomb, close to which are the sepulchres of his princes and officials, still brilliant with colored mosaic work of pictures and hieroglyphics.

The Pyramid Kings.—During the 4th dynasty (about 2700 B.C.) the greater part of the pyramid-tombs were erected in the necropolis of Memphis, on the edge of the Western desert. Traces and remains of more than seventy still exist. The largest, built by *Khufu*, or Cheops, was originally 480 feet high and still measures 450 feet. The second pyramid, which was built by *Khafra*, measured 453 feet (at present 450 feet). The third one, frequently called the Red Pyramid, was built by *Menkaura* (Mycerinus). It is still 204 feet in height (formerly 217 feet). The sacred guardian of the field of the pyramids is the great Sphinx, hewn from the rocks, to spare, as a Greek inscription says, each spot of cultivable land. During the 5th dynasty we pass to the age of *Ti*, whose tomb, with its delicately sculptured walls of alabaster, is among the choicest of Egyptian monuments. The most illustrious monarch of the 6th dynasty was *Merira Pepi I.* (about 2530 B.C.), who fought against the Semites of Asia.

Character of the Old Empire.—With the close of the 6th dynasty ends the Old Empire of Memphis, the exact boundaries of which are unknown. All that can be proved is that these ancient sovereigns possessed the tract about Memphis, and the line of country connecting that tract with the mines of the Sinaitic peninsula. There are no memorials of them in the Delta, none in Upper Egypt. It is the glory of this period that it carried its own proper style of architecture to absolute and unsurpassable perfection. Not only wood, but granite and other hard stones were carved into shape by the efforts of the chisel. The use of monochrome colors, principally red,

CHALDAEAN ASCENDENCY IN WESTERN ASIA.

The Empire of Sargon.....
The beginnings of Egypt.....



BABYLONIA BEFORE THE SEMITIC (CHALDAEAN) CONQUEST, ABOUT 4000 B.C.

Makan, Capital. Ur inhabited by the Sumer.
 Melucha, " Agade " " Akkad,



EGYPT: THE OLD EMPIRE OF THEBES.

black, blue, and yellow, prevailed. The domesticated animals were not so numerous as at a subsequent period. The Egyptian of the Old Empire had dogs and apes for his companions, but not yet cats. For riding he had only asses, not yet horses.

THE OLD EMPIRE OF THEBES.

Thebes.—From the 7th to the 11th dynasty the history of Egypt is a blank. At the end of this long period, variously estimated at from 166 to 740 years, we find the seat of power transferred from Memphis to Thebes. Just north of the gorge of the Gebelein the Nile enters upon a broad plain spreading itself out on both banks of the stream. Here there open out on either side lines of route offering great advantages for trade, on the one hand with the lesser Oasis, and so with the tribes of the African interior; on the other with the western coast of the Red Sea and the spice region of the opposite shore. In this favored position had grown up, on the eastern river bank, a flourishing town. Its Egyptian name was *Us*, the sacred quarter on the west banks of the Nile being *T-APE*, "*the head*," whence the Greek *THEBAI*, our Thebes. It is called *NIA* in the Assyrian inscriptions, and in the Bible *No-Amun* (the City of Amun) from the popular Egyptian name *Nu*, "*the city*."

The Eleventh and Twelfth Dynasties.

—Originally the Theban kings were nothing but vassal princes. Entef IV. threw off the supremacy of the sovereigns in the North, assumes the title of monarch of the South-land and the North-land, and founds the 11th dynasty. The era of Theban greatness, however, begins with Amen-em-hat I. (about 2130 B.C.), the founder of the 12th dynasty. We find ourselves now in an Egypt quite different from that of the 6th dynasty. The southern boundary has been pushed thirty-five miles beyond the second cataract. The obelisk which marks the site of On (Heliopolis near Cairo), raised (2100 B.C.) by Usurtasen I.,

is the oldest one we know of. These obelisks, cut from single blocks of stone (monoliths), characterize the Old Empire of Thebes, just as the pyramids characterized the Old Empire of Memphis. The "*Lake of Inundations*" (*Meri*, Moeris, Arsinoë), dug by Amen-em-hat III., on the western bank of the Nile, formed a large reservoir for regulating the river's water-supply. To the south of *Meri* he erected the so-called Labyrinth, a large palace for ceremonial acts.

Character of the Old Empire of Thebes.

—The Egyptian empire appeared at this time as the centre of civilization, and of all progress in intellect, in art, and in trade. Intellectual life developed itself fully. They strove after moral ennoblement; schools were established in the principal towns.

The territory of the entire country was divided into districts, and engraved stones, fixed as limits, separated neighboring properties.

The kings continued to build pyramids as tombs, and the court officers prepared their graves in the deepest pits in the mountains and placed halls of sacrifice over them in which all the art and splendor of the sculptors and painters were developed. On their walls the different branches of human industry were represented, for the information of future generations. They worked, with tools unknown to us, the precious quarries which existed in the Valley of Hamamat; they drew the rose and the black granite from the "*red mountain*" near Assouan; they brought back the gold from Nubia, and worked the mineral riches of the Sinaitic peninsula, to gain precious turquoises and useful copper. During the rule of the 12th dynasty began that immigration of Semites in the Delta which eventually gave it the name of Caphtor (Keftur, Greater Phœnicia). They succeeded not only in making the Delta their own, but even in conquering the whole country, and under the name of Hyksos, ruling it for five hundred and eleven years. Zoan or Tanis was made their capital.

OLD BABYLONIA.

SOURCES OF OLD BABYLONIAN HISTORY.

Cuneiform Inscriptions.—The tri-lingual Behistun Inscription* furnished the key to the

deciphering of the Cuneiform (wedge-shaped) inscriptions, as did the Rosetta Stone to the Hieroglyphic. The inscription is in three languages—Persian, Elamitic, and Assyrian. The Persian text is expressed in very simple syllabic signs, which have been deciphered since 1836 by Lassen and Burnouf. The Elamitic and Syrian texts are written in very com-

* This inscription was carved by order of the Persian King Darius Hystaspes (519 B.C.) on the precipitous side of the sacred rock of Behistun (*Bagistana*, "*place of the Gods*"), where the road from Babylon to Egbatana crosses the Zagros Mountains.

plicated characters. They have, nevertheless, been deciphered since 1849, by F. de Saulcy, Sir Henry Rawlinson, and others.

The earliest form of this writing, invented by the Akkadians and Sumerians before they left their original home in Elam, was, like the hieroglyphics, a collection of rude pictures, with this peculiarity that they were all straight-lined and angular and arranged in vertical columns. After their settlement on the lower Euphrates they adopted clay as a writing material. On tiny, pillow-shaped clay tablets, from one to five inches long, they traced the outline of the original picture, in a series of distinct, wedge-like impressions made by the square or triangular point of a small bronze tool. The primitive pictures thus became cuneiform or wedge-shaped characters. At the same time they altered the arrangement of the characters, the vertical lines becoming horizontal ones, and running from left to right, by which process the original pictures were laid on their sides.

Although it offers many points of analogy with the Egyptian hieroglyphics, it differs in this that pure consonants are entirely wanting. Its more simple elements are signs for *vowels*, and for syllables containing *vowel* and *consonant*. They have signs for *a*, *pa*, and *at*, but none for *p* or *t*. If they wanted to write *pat* they had to use the form *pa-at*. They expressed nouns and verbs originally, ideographically. This cuneiform system has been adopted with more or less modifications by many nations. First of all by the Semitic invaders of Akkad and Sumer (the Chaldeans), later by the Assyrians and Elamites, and at length by the Armenians. The simple characters of the Persian cuneiform inscriptions have been developed from it by the most radical modifications.

Monuments and Authors.—Among the cuneiform inscriptions we find far more historical material than among the Egyptian hieroglyphics. The inscriptions on the walls of temples and palaces tell us of the deeds of the kings and the buildings they erected. Hollow terra-cotta cylinders, from eighteen to thirty-six inches high, are inscribed with the annals of the realm. Besides fragments of the so-called "*synchronistical table*," which gives us an insight in the political relations between Babylon and Assyria, we possess copies of treaties, of commercial transactions, of petitions to the king, of royal proclamations, and of despatches from generals in the field.

But it relates nearly all to Assyria. The Babylonian documents have nearly all perished. But before they had disappeared they were read and excerpted by Berosus, who did

the same for Babylonia that Manetho did for Egypt. He was a priest of the temple of Bel, at Babylon, in the times of Alexander the Great. Recent discoveries have abundantly established his trustworthiness. But, unfortunately, his works are only known to us through quotations at second and third hand. The notices of Herodotus, of ancient Babylonian history, are scanty and of doubtful value. Ctesias, a Greek physician, who lived about a century after Herodotus (about 350 B.C.), at the court of Artaxerxes II., compiled a Persian history based upon Persian annals. It consists, for the most part, of mere legendary tales and rationalized myths.

Chronology.—The Chronology of Old Babylonia is in much better shape than the Egyptian Chronology. They counted by the years of the king, or stated that anything had happened so many years after a particular remarkable event, for instance: *this happened in the sixth year after the taking of Nisin by King Rimsin*. The valuable Canon of Ptolemy, preserved in the *Almagest*, gives the chronology of Babylon from 747 B.C. downward.

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE.

The twin-rivers, which water the depression between the Syrian and Iranian plateaus, rise, at no great distance from each other, on the Armenian Mountains; the Euphrates to the north, the Tigris to the south. After leaving the mountains both rivers enter a lofty steppe which gradually becomes more level, but also more sterile.

At the place where the two rivers approach each other most nearly (about four hundred miles from their present mouth) there commences a rich plain which consists entirely of the soil deposited by the rivers in a long, narrow arm of the sea. At the dawn of history the greater part of this arm had been filled up as far as 31 northern latitude. The plain extends, at present, one degree farther south. This plain was, in very early times, one of the most productive and thickly populated countries. Here was the centre and starting-point of that civilization which afterward spread throughout Western Asia. It was inhabited by several cognate tribes, entirely unconnected with the nations of Western Asia. They were, in very early times, absorbed by the surrounding nations.

To the east of the Tigris were the warlike tribes of the Kossæans (*Kassu*). To the south of the Kossæans was the country of Elam (*Ansan* in the native tongue), with the rivers Choaspes and Eulæus. *Susan* (Susa) was its capital. To the west of the Euphrates were

the Semitic tribes of the Arabian desert. Originally in *Makan*, the southern part of the plain, we find the Sumerians (*Sumer*), with the capital Ur on the Euphrates, and in *Melucha*, the northern part, we find the Akkadians, so called after their capital, Akkad (*Agade*).

OLD BABYLONIAN HISTORY.

The Semitic Invasion.—Among this primitive population settled Semitic tribes, the *Casdim* or "conquerors" of the Bible. When they first came in contact with the Akkadians these Semites were mere nomads, wanting even the first elements of culture. These, however, they soon acquired from their neighbors, and quickly made themselves indispensable to the agricultural Akkadians. In the course of time they formed a commercial aristocracy which finally usurped the supreme power. The most brilliant representative of this Semitic Dynasty was Sargon I. (about 3800 B.C.), whose patronage of learning caused the library of Agadé (Sippara) to become very famous. He made also several campaigns against Syria and Palestine, and it was to them that the influence of Babylonian culture upon the populations of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean must first be traced. They borrowed the Babylonian system of weights and measures, its division of the solar year, and its style of architecture. Its brick-built palaces, colossal remains of which are still extant, were unsurpassed in size and strength.

The Elamitic Conquest.—About 2300 B.C. both Akkad and Sumer were conquered by the Elamites. We learn from cuneiform inscriptions that *Kudurmabuk* had conquered *mât Martu* (the West-land, i.e., Syria). Another king of the dynasty, Chedor-laomer, extended his empire to the Western Sea and ruled for 12 years in Palestine after having conquered the Hittites, who held their own, however, in the valley of the Orontes and in *Naharina*, i.e., the country on both sides of the Upper Euphrates.

These Hittites, whose features and physical type were those of a Northern people, had originally come from the Caucasus. Their headquarters were, about 2300 B.C., in Cappadocia, bounded on the west by the Halys and on the south by the Cilicians. Their eastern boundary was formed by the river Euphrates.

Beginnings of Assyria.—East of the Euphrates and north of the Tigris were the *Na'iri* lands (after, 500 B.C., Armenia), to the

south of which was Assyria, which took its name from the primitive capital of *A-sur* (or *A-u-sar* "Waterbank," later *Assur*), which stood on the right bank of the Tigris midway between the Greater and Lesser Zab. It became the chief place for the worship of the God Assur, after whom the country was called Assyria. Sixty miles N. E. of Assur, on the eastern bank of the Tigris, was an old settlement called "fish-town," *Ninua* (**Nineveh**), whither (about 1300 B.C.) Shalmaneser I. removed his residence. Henceforward **Nineveh** remained the chief city of the Assyrian Empire. South of Assyria was Kossæa.

The Kossæan Conquest.—About 1500 B.C. Kossæan hordes conquered Akkad. The first Kossæan king of Babylon was Agukakrime, who calls himself, in a large inscription, "King of Kassu, Akkad, Babel, etc., and king of the mighty Gutu." The Gutu were a powerful tribe who lived between the Lesser Zab and the Gyndes. The Kossæans ruled nearly 250 years over Akkad, which they called Kardunias. They resided in Babylon, took the titles of the ancient Babylonian kings, and worshipped the Babylonian gods. Sumer remained independent.

During this revival of the power and influence of Babylon under the Kossæan dynasty the kingdom of Assyria first began to extend itself, partly perhaps, in consequence of the Asiatic conquests of the Egyptian monarchs of the 18th dynasty, partly also in consequence of a close alliance between the Assyrians and the Kossæans. About 1400 B.C. Burnaburias, King of Kardunias, married the daughter of Assuruballit, the King of Assyria. From this marriage sprung Karachardas and Kurigalzu. When Karachardas succeeded his father as King of Kardunias he was soon murdered by the party opposed to Assyrian influence. But the usurper Nazibugas was overthrown by Assuruballit, who placed the younger brother, Kurigalzu, heir of Assyria, on the throne of Kardunias.

This event may be considered the turning point in the history of the kingdoms of the Mesopotamian Valley. Assyria henceforth takes the place held by the worn-out Babylonian monarchy and plays the chief part in the affairs of Western Asia until the day of its final fall.

The same Assuruballit, who regulated the affairs of Babylonia, conquered the valley of the Chaboras and extended the western boundary of Assyria beyond the old town of Harran.



THE EGYPTIAN ASCENDENCY IN SYRIA.

SOURCES OF SYRIAN HISTORY.

The old Aramæan (Syrian) literature is entirely lost. A very few remnants of Phœnician literature have been preserved in Greek translations (fragments of the Tyrian annals of Menander and Dios).

We are confined to the historical books of the Old Testament, the Assyrian records, and some scanty notices in the Egyptian inscriptions.

THE NEW EGYPTIAN EMPIRE.

The 18th Dynasty (begins 1530 B.C.).—The expulsion of the Hyksos was effected by Aahmes I., who became the founder of the 18th dynasty. It was accomplished, however, not all at once, but gradually. From this event Egypt enters on a new stage in its career. It becomes a military, an aggressive, and a conquering state. A martial spirit is evoked. Wars for plunder and conquest ensue.

The injuries Egypt had endured at the hands of Asia were avenged upon Asia itself, and the boundaries of the Egyptian Empire were laid on the banks of the Euphrates.

With the second successor of Aahmes, Thothmes I., begins a long line of great conquerors. In the South he added Kush to Egypt and in the Northeast he carried his arms as far as Naharina (the country on both sides of the Upper Euphrates).

But his exploits were surpassed by those of his second son Thothmes III. (1480-1430 B.C.), under whom Egypt became the arbiter of the destinies of the ancient civilized world. After having conquered the combined Canaanite forces under the Hittite King of Kadesh, at Megiddo, he built a fortress at the foot of Mount Lebanon, near Aradus, to secure his new conquests. But it needed fourteen campaigns more before he could consider himself the Lord paramount of Syria as far as the Amanus. Now year by year tribute and taxes of every kind flowed regularly into the Egyptian treasury from the towns of Palestine and Phœnicia, from Cyprus and from the Hittites. Egypt was covered with monuments, became the centre of trade and intercourse and Thebes took rank as the capital of the world.

There the great temple of Ammon became the special object of Thothmes' fostering care. Its central sanctuary, which Usurtasen I. had built in common stone, was replaced by the present granite edifice. He then built in the rear of the old temple a magnificent hall in

the form of an oblong square, 143 × 65 feet. It was roofed in with slabs of solid stone; two rows of circular pillars thirty feet in height supported the central part, while on each side of the pillars was a row of square piers, still further extending the width of the chamber and breaking it up into five long vistas. On three sides of this hall he erected chambers and corridors, one of the former situated toward the south containing, what is now called, the "*Great Tablet of Karnak*." On this tablet are exhibited, in a consecutive series as ancestors of the reigning Pharaoh, sixty kings, commencing with Snefru. Thothmes III. represents himself as making offerings to them, thereby acknowledging at once their ancestral relation to himself and their divinity.

To him, therefore, belongs the credit of being the first, so far as we know, to attempt the task of arranging the old kings in something like chronological order.

He enclosed also the temple of the Sun at Anu (Heliopolis) and erected the obelisks belonging to the same building, which the irony of fate has now removed to Italy, England, and America. Two of the obelisks which Thothmes III. erected at Anu were about nineteen centuries ago transferred by Augustus to Alexandria, where they remained till recently, and were known as Cleopatra's needles. At present one ornaments the Thames Embankment in London, while the other adds to the charms of New York's Central Park.

Besides distinguishing himself as a warrior, builder, and genealogist, Thothmes III. was one of the greatest naturalists. He established a botanical and zoological garden, stocked with the curious plants and animals he had brought back with him from his numerous campaigns. Under his immediate successors (Amenhotep II., Thothmes IV., and Amenhotep III.) the empire founded by him was successfully maintained, but under the next king, Amenhotep IV., the decline commenced. For, although his generals continued to gain victories over Sasu and Rutenu, the country was fermenting with the suppressed bitterness of religious hatred. For he and his house had ceased to worship Amun-Ra and the state-gods of Thebes, giving only divine honors to the one God of Light. Him he worshipped under the symbol of the Solar Disk (Aten) and changed his own name to Khu-en-Aten, which means "The Splendor of the Solar Disk."

This raised open war between him and the



priests, and forced him to leave Thebes, the City of Amun-Ra.

He now commenced to build a new capital, Khu-aten, far from Memphis and Thebes, at a place in the centre of Egypt which at this day bears the name of Tell-el-Amarna. It was richly adorned with monuments, traces of which, in spite of their later wholesale destruction, are clearly to be perceived in the heaps of *débris*. Here he died, surrounded by his relations and converts to the new doctrines, leaving seven daughters, but no son. He was succeeded by two of his sons-in-law, and then by his master of the house Ai, who had married the foster-mother of Khu-en-Aten. Ai returned to the orthodox state religion.

After his death there were secession troubles, attended with much anarchy. Order was restored by Hor-em-hib, who had married the sister-in-law of Khu-en-Aten. Kush, which had shaken off the Egyptian dominion, was reconquered by Hor-em-hib, with whom the 18th dynasty came to an end.

The 19th Dynasty.—Ramses I. was the founder of the 19th Egyptian Dynasty. His short reign of six years was chiefly signalized by the beginning of the long struggle with the Cheta or Hittites, now the most powerful people in Western Asia. We find their monuments on the east bank of the Halys and through the whole of Asia Minor, very often in the neighborhood of old silver mines. Two sculptures carved on the rocks of the pass of Karabel (twenty-five miles east of Smyrna) instead of being memorials, as Herodotus (II., 106), tells us, of the conquests of the Egyptians, are monuments of their most redoubtable enemies, the Cheta, and testify to the extension of the Hittite power as far as the *Ægean*. Until recently the extension of the Egyptian power in Western Asia was greatly exaggerated. It reached its furthest limits under Thothmes III., when the mountain range of Amanus was its northern boundary. Continually declining under the successors of Thothmes III., of the 18th dynasty, Western Asia had to be conquered anew by the 19th dynasty. Sethos I., son and successor of Ramses I., once more restored the waning power of Egypt. Kaft (Phœnicia) was reconquered as far as Byblus, and the Rutenu of the Jordan valley submitted voluntarily. Mautenur, the Cheta King, made an alliance with Sethos. Then the Tehenu were conquered in the northeast and the race of Kas in the south, and memorials of victory were set up at Sesebi, which proclaimed that Egypt reached southward "*to the arms of the wind*." His military exploits were, however, eclipsed by his buildings, first among which

was the Hall of Columns in the Temple of Karnak. In this immense hall, with its 164 massive stone pillars, Egyptian architectural power culminated. He also designed and commenced the Rameseum, in honor of his father Ramses I.

Ramses II., popularly called Sestura (the Sesostris of Herodotus), was the son and successor of Sethos. His accession was the signal for a renewal of the war between Egypt and Cheta. Ramses II. penetrated as far as Kadesh, on the Orontes. On the wall of the great temple of Aboo Simbel there is a picture of this battle of Kadesh (57 × 24 feet), which contains 1,100 figures, and among those there is no difficulty in recognizing the slim Egyptians and the northern features of the Cheta. The event was immortalized by the poet Pendaure, which poem was not only carved on the walls of Aboo Simbel, but also on the temple walls of Abydos, Luxor, and Karnak. But this and other successes over the Cheta were generally Pyrrhic victories. We hear of Egyptian armies penetrating as far north as Naharina, or of statues of Ramses II. being erected in Tunep, and we may still see his features sculptured on the rocks near the mouth of the Nahr-el-Kelb near Byblus. But when, after thirty-four years of struggle, peace was concluded between Cheta and Egyptians, the latter were confined to the small part of Syria between the Jordan and the coast. The Hittites had succeeded in driving the Egyptians from the valley of the Orontes and from Naharina. The "great king of the Cheta," Khita-Sira, entered into an alliance, defensive and offensive, with Ramses II., who henceforth confined his warlike exploits to the land of Kas. The remaining thirty-six years of this long reign were mostly spent in the execution of great works, partly of utility, partly of ornament.

Among the great works of utility are: the great wall, which extended for ninety miles from Chetam (Pelusium) to Anu; the great canal, which connected Pi-Bast (Bubastus on the Nile) with the sea of Sekot (Gulf of Suez), and the enlarging of Tanis, the great city of the Delta, which he made his capital. He was the founder of Pi-Ramesu, Pi-Tum, Pi-Ptah, Pi-Ammon, and Pi-Rah. He finished the Rameseum began by his father, and erected numerous other temples at Abydos, Memphis, and Thebes, but he cared more for the size and number of his buildings than for their careful construction and artistic finish. To this, however, Aboo Simbel forms a striking exception. A huge and solemn temple was hewn out of a mountain, and its entrance guarded by four colossi, each with a divine



THE DECLINE OF EGYPT.

calm imprinted upon its mighty features, and with eyes fixed toward the rising of the sun. Though no longer the royal residence Thebes was the great city of the Empire. The city must have presented a most marvellous appearance when the architectural works of the Pharaohs stood erect and rose up from the earth solid and massive as rocks on either bank of the Nile, while the multitude of obelisks and colossi towered up like a forest of stone. On the right bank rose the buildings of the residence of the Pharaoh. Close to the river stood the immense temples, behind these the palaces of the kings and nobles, and still farther from the river, in shady streets, were the high, narrow houses of the citizens.

The ruins of two colossal temples still remain. The greatest (1200×360 feet) is near the modern village of Karnak. A smaller one (over 800 feet long) is at the modern village of Luxor (two miles south of Karnak). On the western bank was the famous necropolis of Thebes. Looking up from the shore to the precipice of the western hills, hundreds of closed portals could be seen, some solitary, others closely arranged in rows. They were the tombs of the Thebans. The graves and the passages that led to them are all hewn in the rock. Separated from the first range of

hills by a desolate ravine, there rises, farther to the west, a second wall of rock, which the Arabs call Bibân el-Moluk, *i.e.*, the Gates of the Kings. Here are the tombs of the kings of the 19th and 20th dynasties.

MESOPOTAMIA DURING THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN EGYPTIANS AND HITTITES.

While Egyptians and Cheta were fighting for the dominion of Syria, the Assyrian monarch Tugultininep made an end to the Kosæan dominion over Kardunias. About 1250 he ascends the Assyrian throne and calls himself henceforth King of Assur, Sumer, and Akkad.

For a short time the whole of Mesopotamia was united. But after the Hittites had made peace with the Egyptians they assailed the Assyrian Empire on the North and West, and Akkad and Sumer seized the opportunity to make themselves free. But their independence lasted a short time only. They were continually distracted by civil wars and assailed by their neighbors, and the literature and culture of the South migrated gradually to Assyria.

Plate IV. gives the condition of Western Asia at the time of the conclusion of the peace between the Egyptians and Cheta or Hittites.

WESTERN ASIA AFTER THE EXPULSION OF THE EGYPTIANS.

THE DECLINE OF EGYPT.

The decline of Egypt begins immediately after the death of Ramses II. The fourteenth son, Menephthah, who succeeded him (according to some the Pharaoh of the Exodus) had constantly to repel invasions. Under his three immediate successors (the last monarchs of the 19th dynasty) civil war added to invasion, brought Egypt to the brink of destruction.

The 20th dynasty had again to free the country from foreign rule, under which it had suffered for thirteen years. Set-nekht, the deliverer and founder of the dynasty, was succeeded by his son, Ramses III. (Rampsinitus), the last of the native heroes. On his accession (1180 B.C.) Egypt was surrounded on all sides by enemies (Tehenu, Cheta, Maxyes). Ramses III. conquered them all, and filled his coffers with the spoil of his enemies. When peace was established he increased his wealth by building a fleet of merchantmen in the harbor of Suez, and by renewing the mining-stations of Sinai. He endeavored to surpass

the monarchs of the 19th dynasty in the magnificence of their buildings. At Medinet Abu, opposite Luxor, he erected a palace of such solidity that it still remains. When he died he left his son, Rameses IV., a prosperous and peaceful kingdom; the Empire of earlier days had gone, and Egypt was generally contracted to its own borders, but within these borders it was at peace. The succeeding kings of the 20th dynasty were all named Ramses, and each was as insignificant as his predecessor. The high-priests of Amon at Thebes gradually supplanted their power, until at last all things were ripe for revolution, and the high-priest Hirhor seized the throne (1050 B.C.). He was the founder of the 21st dynasty, under which Egypt irrevocably lost the remnant of her Asiatic provinces.

A rival dynasty arose at Tanis, in the Delta, which gradually extended its power as far as Syene. The high-priests were driven from the Theban throne, and became again priests and governors of Thebes. Some members of Hirhor's family sought and found a refuge in

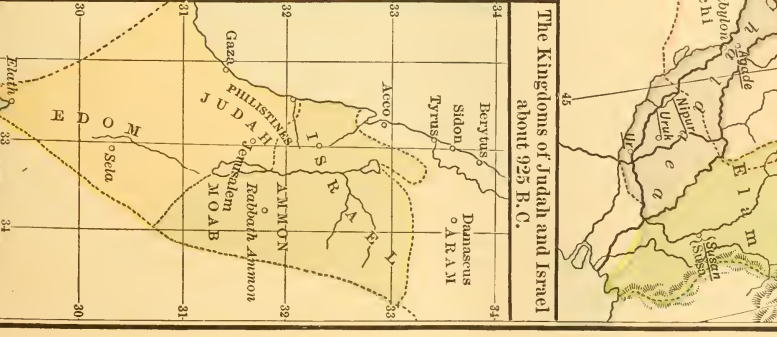
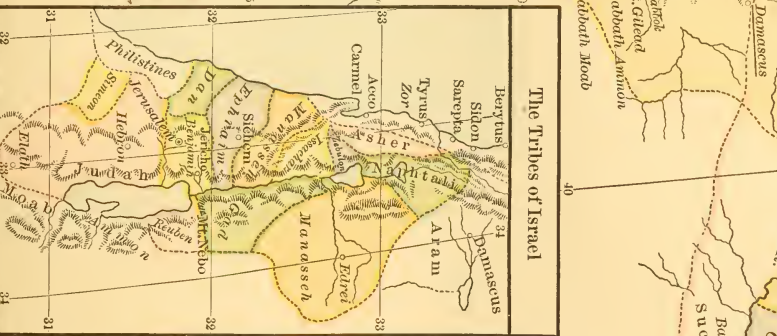
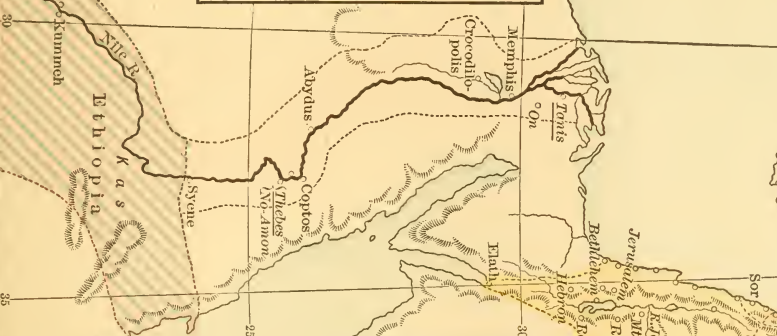
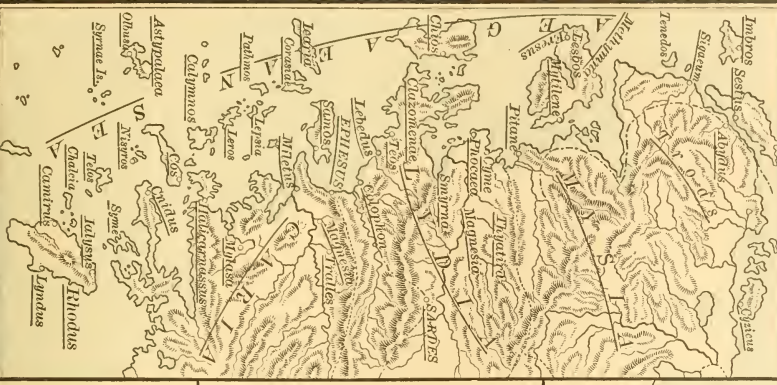
THE WORLD 1000 YEARS B. C.

GREATNESS OF ISRAEL.

Settlements of the Hebrews around the coasts and on the Isles of the Aegean Sea.

THE FIRST ASSYRIAN EMPIRE IN ITS TEMPORARY DECLINE.

Greek Colonies on the coast of Asia Minor about 1000 B. C.



the land of Kas, where they founded the Ethiopian Empire, of which Napata, at the foot of Gebel Barkal (the Holy Mountain) was the capital (about 1000 B.C.). Egyptian was the language, the religion, and the whole civilization. What had remained theory in Egypt became a fact in Ethiopia. A long inscription tells us that the king is chosen immediately by the God Amon himself, through his oracle, and that the priests in the name of Amon may order the king to kill himself. The rule of the Tanitic Dynasty (the 21st Dynasty of Manetho) seems to have lasted about one hundred and twenty years (1060-943 B.C.), during the greater part of which the high-priests of Amon were the almost independent governors of the Theban district.

This Tanitic Dynasty was finally overthrown by Sheshunk, the general-in-chief, who heads the 22d dynasty (943), and established his court at Bubastus. He made also an end to the semi-independence of Thebes under the descendants of Hirhor.

THE HOLY LAND AND THE PHŒNICIANS.

The Phœnicians.—A narrow but fertile strip of land, from ten to fifteen miles in breadth, and one hundred and fifty in length, shut in between Lebanon and the Sea, was the home of the Phœnicians, who called it Canaan, "the lowlands." The Egyptians named it the land of Keft, or "the palm." Its inhabitants were called Fenchu, whence the Greek Phœnikes and the Latin Pœni. On this narrow strip arose the Phœnician cities. Byblos, with its dependency of Berytus, was perhaps the oldest settlement on the coast. It always formed a distinct territory in the midst of the Phœnician confederacy. The principal towns of this confederacy were: Acco, Tyre, Sidon, Tripolis, and Aradus. These cities were the first trading communities the world had seen. Their power and wealth, and even their existence, depended on commerce. Their colonies were originally mere marts, and their voyages of discovery were undertaken in the interest of trade. The tin of Britain, the silver of Spain, and the pearls and ivory of India, all flowed into their harbors. But the purple trade was the staple of their industry. It was by the help of the *murex*, or purple fish, that they had first become prosperous, and when the coast of Palestine could no longer supply sufficient purple for the demands of the world they made their way in search of it to the coasts of Greece, of Sicily, and of North Africa. Thus the Phœnicians became the intermediaries of ancient civilization. One of the earliest spots colonized by them was

the Egyptian Delta, which became so thickly populated by Phœnicians as to cause it to be termed Keft-ur (Caphtor), or Greater Phœnicia. This Delta was the space between the most distant branches of the river Nile, which was called Delta on account of its almost triangular shape, resembling that of the Greek letter Delta (Δ). The point where the river begins to bifurcate has remained about the same. Here the river anciently divided into three branches, the Pelusiatic, running east, the Canopic, running west, and the Sebennytic, which flowed between these two, continuing indeed the general northward direction hitherto taken by the Nile, and piercing the Delta through the centre. From the Sebennytic branch two others were derived, the Tanitic and the Mendesian, both of which emptied themselves between it and the Pelusiatic branch. The lower part of the remaining two branches, the Bolbitic and the Phatnitic, were artificial, and were constructed probably when the outer outlets began to dry up. It is by these two mouths that the river at the present day finds its outlet.

The Hebrews.—In the Eastern part of the Delta, in the district of Gosen (or Goshen), the Hebrew nation arose. In that country the descendants of Jacob became a nation; Moses conducted the Hebrews out of Egypt (1320 B.C.). When the Hebrews had delivered themselves from the dominion of Egypt they pastured their flocks on the peninsula of Sinai, from whence they threw themselves upon the rich uplands on the east of the Jordan. Then they descended into the valley and invaded the land beyond the river. They conquered the *Promised Land*, but without entirely subjugating the former inhabitants. To the tribe of Levi was given the exclusive care and service of the tabernacle and all things used in the religious ceremonial. The other twelve tribes, named from ten sons of Jacob and two sons of Joseph (Ephraim and Manasseh), settled in separate districts, which were more or less cut off from one another by remnants of the former inhabitants, and formed an exceedingly loose union of twelve small states under tribal chiefs, which was at times hard pressed by neighboring tribes. In order to make head against them, the tribes were firmly united into a kingdom. Three monarchs ruled the united tribes: Saul, David, and Solomon. Each reigned forty years.

The progress of the nation during this brief space is most remarkable. The first was merely a general; the second was a warrior king, who enlarged the boundaries of Palestine, fixed the capital at Jerusalem, and organized an army; the third was a magnificent

Oriental monarch. Under this third king, Solomon, the Hebrews were the paramount race in Syria. An empire had been formed which reached from the Euphrates, at Thapsacus, to the Red Sea and the borders of Egypt. Numerous monarchs were tributary to the Great King, who reigned at Jerusalem, which court vied in splendor with those of Nineveh and Memphis. But the power and greatness of the king had become oppressive to the bulk of the people. Such a rapid growth was necessarily exhaustive of the nation's strength, and the decline of the Israelites dates from the division of the kingdom (975 B.C.).

Rehoboam, son of Solomon, drove the bulk of his native subjects into rebellion. In the place of the mighty empire which under David and Solomon took rank among the foremost powers of the earth we find two petty kingdoms. The kingdom of Israel (975-721), established by the revolt of Jeroboam, comprised ten out of the twelve tribes, and reached from the borders of Damascus to within ten miles from Jerusalem. It included the whole of the Trans-Jordanic territory, and exercised lordship over the Moabites. The kingdom of Judah (975-586) was composed of two entire

tribes only, and confined to the lower and less fertile portion of the Holy Land. It compensated, however, for these disadvantages by its compactness, its unity, the strong position of its capital, and the indomitable spirit of its inhabitants.

FIRST ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

The first Assyrian Empire became about 1100 B.C. for a short time the ruling power in Western Asia. Tiglath-Pileser I. (the Tugulti-palesarra of the great cylindrical inscription) had welded together an empire which embraced nearly the whole of Mesopotamia and the mountainous tracts beyond the Euphrates as far as the Black Sea (the sea of the Nairi country). Even Northern Syria acknowledged his over-lordship. Under his feeble successor it declined rapidly.

The district of Pitru, between the Sagur and the Euphrates, fell into the hands of the king of Bit-Adini. David was enabled to carry the Hebrew arms as far as the banks of the Euphrates, and Assyria itself was overrun by the victorious armies of the Babylonian King Sibir, who ruled as independent monarch over Akkad and Sumer.

THE ASSYRIAN ASCENDENCY IN WESTERN ASIA.

THE FIRST ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

After 1100 B.C. the history of Assyria is a blank. When about 950 B.C. the veil is once more lifted, we find the Assyrian throne occupied by Assur-dayan II., under whose great-grandson, Assur-natsir-pal (884-860 B.C.) Assyria again became the ruling power in Western Asia. The whole tract between the Euphrates and Tigris, from the sources of the twin rivers as far as Kardunias (Babylonia), and the mountain tracts as far as lakes Van and Urmia obeyed him. In a large inscription he tells us how (about 876 B.C.) he crossed the Euphrates near Karkamis. "All kings of these countries came to me, they embraced my feet and I took their hostages." He penetrated till deep into the Lebanon. In the oak forests of Mount Amanus he caused beams to be cut to be used in his temples at Ninua, and his image was sculptured on the rocks near the sources of the Tigris.

Great as his conquests were, they were far surpassed by those of his son Shalmaneser II. (860-824 B.C.) whose long and prosperous reign

of more than thirty-six years marks the climax of the first Assyrian Empire. In the beginning of his reign he annihilated the old Hittite population of Bet-Adini, which was settled anew with Assyrian colonists, and the old Hittite town Tilbarsip was made his residence and its ancient name changed to Kar-Shalmaneser. From this place he made continual excursions in the Western countries. The Halys became the western boundary of the Empire. Tarsus, with the whole of Eastern Cilicia, was conquered in 834 B.C. The rivers Kuros and Phasis formed the northern boundary. In the East Amada (Medians) en Parsua (not Persians, but a tribe of Western Media), obeyed him. Southward his empire stretched as far as the Persian Gulf, where the Caldei or Chaldeans, who inhabited the marshes near the mouths of the twin rivers, paid him tribute. This is the first time their name occurs in history. But the decay of the empire began before the great conqueror had closed his eyes. A terrible rebellion clouded the end of his reign, headed by his eldest son Assur-dayan-pal. It was put down, however, by his

THE SECOND ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

second son Samas-Rimmon, who succeeded him. The celebrated black obelisk of Shalmaneser II. enumerates the campaigns of the old conqueror. (The extent of his empire is indicated on the map by a red line.)

Only sixty years after Shalmaneser's death, the last of his descendants, Assur-nirari, mounted the throne, from which he was driven after an inglorious reign of ten years by Pul, one of his generals. Pul seized the crown (April, 745 B.C.), and became the founder of the second Assyrian Empire.

He assumed the name of the ancient conqueror, Tiglath-Pileser (745-727 B.C.).

THE SECOND ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

This second Assyrian Empire was essentially a commercial one. It was founded and maintained for the purpose of attracting the trade of Western Asia. The resources of the Empire were reserved for the subjugation of Babylonia, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt, the rich and civilized marts of the ancient world. The conquered nations became subject provinces, governed by Assyrian Satraps; while turbulent populations were deported to some distant part of the Empire.

The third king, an usurper, who assumed the venerable name of Sargon (723-705) was the father of this policy. In 722 B.C. he took Samaria and deported twenty-seven thousand two hundred of its leading inhabitants into Media; then he crushed the Philistines, made his way to Egypt along the sea-coast, through Philistia, and conquered the Egyptians at Raphia (Rapichi). But this victory had no further consequences. The Assyrians did not dare to enter Egypt. Three years later (717 B.C.) he took Karkamis, the wealthy capital of the once powerful Hittites, which commanded the great caravan road from the East. By this capture Assyria became mistress of the trade of Western Asia. Sargon was succeeded by his son Sennacherib (705-681 B.C.), under whom Babylon, which had revolted, was captured. Its inhabitants were sold into slavery and the venerable city utterly destroyed (692 B.C.). But it was rebuilt by his son and successor, Esar-haddon (681-668 B.C.). Henceforward, Babylon became the second capital of the Empire, the Assyrian court residing alternately there and at Nineveh. This tactful policy pacified the South. His political sagacity was equal to the high military talents which enabled him to complete the fabric of the Second Empire by the conquest of Egypt (672 B.C.). It was divided into twenty satrapies, governed partly by Assyrians, partly by native vassal-princes, who were, however,

watched by a number of Assyrian garrisons. The Assyrian supremacy lasted about ten years.

Esar-haddon was succeeded by his son Assur-bani-pal (668-626), the Sardanapalus of the Greeks, who was a munificent patron of literature and art. Under him the Assyrian Empire reached its final limits.

He found Egypt in a state of revolt. Two campaigns were required to quell it. Thebes was plundered and destroyed, the ground strewn with its ruins, and two of the obelisks at Karnak sent as trophies to Nineveh (662 B.C.). Tyre surrendered to him, and far-off Cilicia owned his supremacy. The name of the great king spread to the extreme west of Asia Minor, and Gyges, of Lydia, voluntarily sent him tribute, trusting to Assyria for defence against the adherents of the dynasty he had displaced and the Cimmerian hordes that menaced him without. But Gyges soon discovered that the friendship of Nineveh was a burden rather than a gain. The Assyrian Empire was threatening to swallow up all the East.

But in 652 B.C. a general insurrection broke out, headed by Assur-bani-pal's brother, the Viceroy of Babylon, in the East, and by Psammetichus of Sais in the West. Psammetichus, the Assyrian vassal-king of Sais and Memphis, succeeded in shaking off the Assyrian yoke and restoring the independence of Egypt (about 645 B.C.); for Assur-bani-pal was too much occupied with the revolt of Babylon. With great difficulty this revolt was crushed. Babylon was reduced by famine, and Sam-mughes burnt himself to death in his palace. The union of Babylonia with Assyria now became closer than before. It was administered by a subordinate and often changed governor. But after Assur-bani-pal's death these governors again began to extend their power, and one of them, Nabopolassar, made himself independent (625 B.C.).

THE FALL OF ASSYRIA.

The loss of Babylonia was soon followed by greater misfortunes. Through the North-eastern passes of the Iranian plateau Sacian Scythians forced their way among the Median tribes then inhabiting Iran. To avoid annihilation the hitherto loosely connected tribes united and formed a strong Median Empire, which forced the invaders across the Zagros Mountains into Assyria. This attack shook the Assyrian power to its very foundation. While Assyria was still smarting under its consequences, Nabopolassar of Babylonia made an alliance with the Median king Cyaxares



(Hvakhsatsa) for the purpose of dividing Assyria among them (608 B.C.).

Now at length the time had come to destroy the proud nation which had treated all other peoples with the deepest disdain, considering themselves in their own conceit the true lords of the earth, more wise, more moral, more pious than the rest of mankind. We neither know the precise circumstances under which, nor even the precise time (but somewhere about 606 B.C.) when Assyria was destroyed.

But it was one of the most terrible catastrophes that ever happened. Not only an Empire was destroyed that a few years before had ruled the whole of Western Asia, but a whole nation which for centuries had been the curse of all other nations was utterly effaced. The four capitals Assur, Ninua, Kalach, and Dur-Sarrukin, were so thoroughly blotted out that they never were inhabited again. They disappeared from the face of the earth as the nation that had built them.

ASIA AFTER THE FALL OF ASSYRIA.

LYDIA AND MEDIA.

Two considerable empires arose (606 B.C.) out of the ashes of Assyria—the Babylonian and Median. These empires were established by mutual consent; they were connected together by the ties of affinity which united their rulers. To Cyaxares, the founder of the Median Empire, the conquest of Assyria did not bring a time of repose. He engaged in a series of wars, and subdued to himself all Asia to the east of the Halys.

The advance of his western frontier to this river brought him in contact with the Lydian power.

The broad plains of the Hermus and Cayster, in which the Lydian monarchy grew up, are the richest in Asia Minor, and the mountain chains by which they are girdled, while sufficiently high to protect them, form cool and bracing sites for cities, and are rich in minerals of various kinds.

The first Lydian dynasty of the mythical Atiyads was succeeded by the second dynasty of the Heracleids, whose rule lasted for over five hundred years. This dynasty ended with Candaules, who was killed (690 B.C.) by Gyges, the founder of the third dynasty—the Mermnadæ. He extended the Lydian dominion as far as the Hellespont. During his reign Lydia was invaded by the Cimmerians. Gyges, after driving them out several times, was finally captured in battle and beheaded by them (652 B.C.). His great-grandson, Alyattes III., succeeded in extirpating the Cimmerian scourge. The expulsion of the Cimmerians gave him the sovereignty of Asia Minor as far as the river Halys, which became the boundary between Media and Lydia. In 590 B.C. war broke out between the two empires. After six years of fighting a treaty between Alyattes and Cyaxares was brought about

(585 B.C.) by the kindly offices of the Babylonian King and the intervention of the Eclipse (May 28th), foretold by Thales. In order to cement this treaty, the daughter of Alyattes, Aryenis, was married to Astyages, the son of Cyaxares. By this peace the three great monarchies of the time—the Median, Lydian, and the Babylonian—were placed on terms of the closest intimacy. From the shores of the Ægean to those of the Persian Gulf, Western Asia was now ruled by interconnected dynasties, bound by treaties to respect each other's rights and perhaps to lend each other aid in important conjunctures.

Lydia especially reaped the fruit of this alliance. After the capture of Smyrna had provided it with a port, it rapidly progressed in power and property. Its ships trafficked in all ports of the Ægean, and its kings sent offerings to Delphi and affected to be Greek. It remained for Cræsus, however, the son of Alyattes, to make himself master of the wealthy trading cities of Ionia. With the commerce of Ionia and the native treasures of Lydia alike at his command he became the richest monarch of his age, and all the nations of Asia Minor as far as the Halys owned his sway (with the sole exception of Lycia).

BABYLONIA AND EGYPT.

The fourth of the great powers was Egypt. After the Assyrian garrisons had been driven out, and the vassal-kings had been reduced (not without Lydian assistance), Psammetichus became the sole and independent Lord of united Egypt. He was the founder of the 26th dynasty, under which took place a revival of peace, power, and prosperity, accompanied by a revival of art. Sais, the capital of the 26th dynasty, was adorned with buildings which almost rivalled the mighty

monuments of Thebes. Necho (609-595 B.C.), the son of Psammetichus, strove to make the Egyptians the chief trading people of the world. An attempt was accordingly made to unite the Red Sea and the Mediterranean by cutting a canal from Bubastis to the Bitter Lakes, and only given up after the death of 120,000 of the laborers. Phœnician ships were sent to circumnavigate Africa, and returned successful after three years' absence. But Necho's dreams of Asiatic sovereignty were dissipated by his defeat at Karkamis at the hands of Nebuchadnezzar, who, in succeeding his father, in 604 B.C., found himself the undisputed Lord of all the countries between the Tigris and Mediterranean.

Necho's son, Psammetichus II. (595-589), kept carefully away from any conflict with the mighty ruler of Babylonia, but the next Pharaoh, Apries (Hophra), was anxious to avenge his grandfather's reverses by capturing Sidon and Gaza. He made an alliance (590 B.C.) with Zedekiah, the Babylonian vassal-king of Judah, and induced the Phœnician towns to refuse to pay tribute to Nebuchadnezzar. But the Babylonians again shattered the army of the Pharaoh, and laid siege to Jerusalem, which (586 B.C.) was taken. Zedekiah saw his sons murdered before his eyes and then was blinded, and after the temple and palace had been burned and the city sacked, he, with all the families of the upper-class, was carried away to Babylon.

Another old nation was destroyed. But it continued to exist as a religious community until the present day. What Jeremiah so often had foretold had actually come to pass. *Jeru-*

salem had fallen. When Gedaljah, who had been made Babylonian governor of Judah, was killed by Ismael, a descendant of the royal house, the remainder of the Jews, in order to escape the Babylonian vengeance, went with Jeremiah to Egypt, where they were received with open arms by Apries. About that time the Libyans invoked the help of the Pharaoh against the Greeks who had founded in 630 Cyrene, and who gradually colonized the African coast. Many Jews enlisted in the army, which was sent by Apries against the Cyrenæans, but they perished miserably with the greater part of the Egyptian army. The ill-fated expedition was followed by the revolt of the army and the accession of Amasis (Aahmes II.), the brother-in-law of Apries, who, with his Greek mercenaries, was conquered at Momemphis and executed (569 B.C.). Amasis made but one conquest—Cyprus—but avoided carefully from meddling with the affairs of Syria, which now formed an integral part of the great Babylonian Empire, called after its famous capital, Babylon, which was enlarged and adorned by Nebuchadnezzar on a scale of unequalled splendor. Its buildings and walls were worthy of the metropolis of the world. Hanging gardens were constructed for Queen Amytis (daughter of Cyaxares), and the great temple of Bel was roofed with cedar and overlaid with gold. After a reign of forty-two years Nebuchadnezzar died (562 B.C.). Within eight years after his death the power passed from the house of Nabopolassar. Nabonidos was raised to the throne, who, after a reign of seventeen and a half years, witnessed the end of the Babylonian Empire (538 B.C.).

THE FOUNDATION OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

THE FALL OF MEDIA.

Cyaxares, the founder of the Median Empire, died 584 B.C., leaving his crown to his son Astyages (Istuwegu), who had neither his father's enterprise nor his ability. During his long reign he abstained almost wholly from military enterprises, and thus an entire generation of Medes grew up without seeing actual service, which alone makes the soldier. Cyrus, the vassal-king of Persia, saw his opportunity, pressed his advantage, and established the supremacy of his nation, before the unhappy effects of Astyages' peace policy could be removed. He waited till Astyages was advanced in years, and so disqualified for

command; till the veterans of Cyaxares were almost all in their graves; and till the Babylonian throne was occupied by a king who was not likely to give Astyages any aid. He was successful in bringing about the substitution of Persia for Media as the ruling power in Western Asia. The fall of the Median Empire (558 B.C.) was due immediately to the genius of the Persian prince; but its ruin was prepared, and its destruction was really caused by the short-sightedness of the Median monarch. Lydia (546) and Babylonia (538) shared the fate of the Median Empire. Harpagus, a general of Cyrus, made the Greek towns on the coast of Asia Minor tributary to the Persians. The Phœnicians and Cilicians

retained their native rulers under Persian supremacy; the Jews were sent back from Babylon to Palestine.

THE MEDIAN REVOLT.

Cyrus, who was occupied during the last nine years of his reign with wars against Eastern nations, fell in one of these expeditions (529) and was succeeded by his eldest son, Cambyses (Kambudschiya), who added Egypt and Ethiopia to the Empire (529-522). On his return from the Egyptian expedition he died in Syria. A Median priest, who knew that Bardija, the younger son of Cyrus, had been murdered by command of Cambyses, proclaimed himself the brother and successor of the late king. After a short reign the usurper was attacked in his castle, Sikajauvati, in Media, by six noble Persians, headed by the true heir to the throne, Darius (Darayavahush), son of Hystaspes (Vistaspa), the head of the younger line of the Achæmenidæ, the elder having become extinct with Cambyses and Bardija.

A succession of arduous struggles was needed to restore unity to the empire. But in 519 B.C. Darius could look upon his victory as complete, and erect a grand monument in memory of it on the spot where the highroad from Babylon to Egbatana crosses the Zagros Mountains. (Plate VII.) This monument of Behistun is of great significance for Greek as well as for Asiatic history. It marks the return to the old policy of the Achæmenidæ, which could not leave the subjection of the Greeks, begun under Cyrus, a work half done. The triumph of Darius announced the approaching struggle between Hellenes and Barbarians, or, as had now come to be the settled distinction, between Asia and Europe.

THE SCYTHIAN EXPEDITION.

It broke out eleven years after the erection of the monument at Behistun (508 B.C.), when Darius desired to annex Thrace to the Persian Empire as a first step to embrace in his dominion the lovely isles and coasts of Greece. But on the right flank of an army invading Thrace lay the formidable power of Scythia, the ancient enemy of Southwestern Asia.

This had to be subdued before Thrace could be conquered.

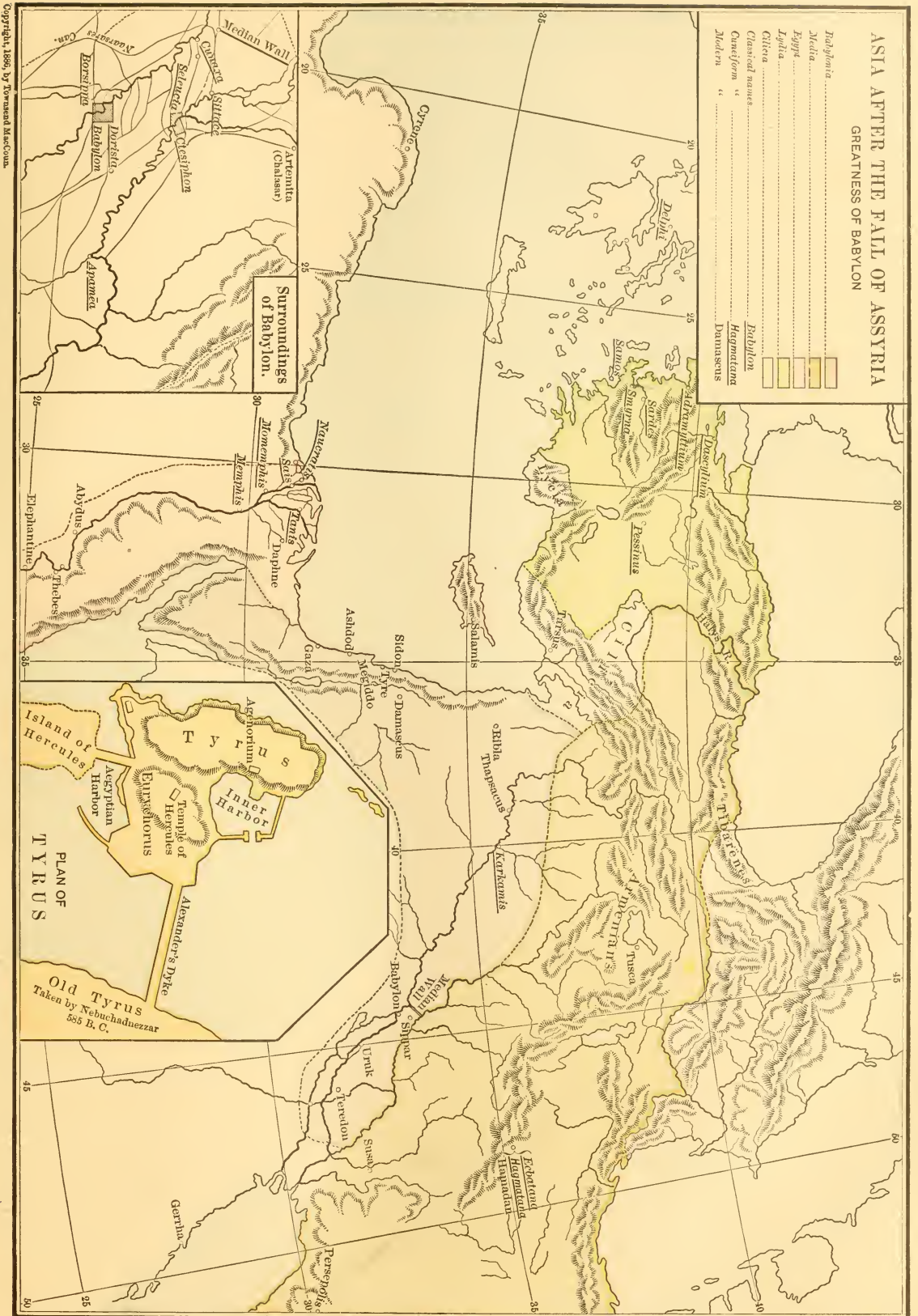
Hence the SCYTHIAN EXPEDITION was no in-

sane project of a frantic despot, but a well-concerted plan for the furtherance of a great design and the permanent advantage of his empire.

Collecting an army of nearly 800,000 men, and a fleet of 600 ships (chiefly from the Greek towns in Asia Minor), he crossed the Bosphorus, marched through Thrace and passed the Danube by a bridge (formed by the Greek vessels) just above the apex of the delta. The Scythians retired on his approach, endeavoring to destroy his army by depriving it of provisions. But the commissariat of the Persians was, as usual, well arranged, and Darius escaped without important losses, recrossed the Danube, and met on his return march through Thrace no opposition. Before passing the Bosphorus the king commissioned Megabazus to complete the reduction of Thrace, and to make a regular satrapy in Europe.

Megabazus subdued not only the whole of Thrace, but received even the submission of Amyntas, King of Macedonia, and the Persian Empire now extended in Europe from the Danube to Mt. Olympus, the boundary between Macedonia and Thessaly.

Before his death in 485 B.C. the boundaries of the empire of DARIUS were: in the West, Mt. Olympus and the Great Syrtis; in the East, the lower Indus; in the North, the Caucasus and the river Jaxartes; while, in the South, the tribes of Arabia, and the negroes above Nubia acknowledged him as their lord. Thus his perseverance and vigor had succeeded not only in re-establishing, but even in greatly extending the kingdom of **Cyrus**. He was as energetic as he was prudent, but on the whole inclined to mildness. The great aim of his life was to give his empire a regular administration. This was the first attempt known to history to govern on a fixed plan. The foundations which he laid were so firm that, in spite of many serious rebellions, the empire never fell from internal disorganization. Thus DARIUS (**Darayavahush**) became the real founder of the Persian Empire, which he made a homogeneous whole, divided into 29 provinces, whose governors were called satraps (**khskathrapavan**—*land-rulers*), who had indeed the outward splendor of kings, but were, nevertheless, under strict control. Communication between the provinces was kept up by post-roads which all met at the capital, **Susa**.



THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

BEFORE THE PERSIAN WARS.

SOURCES OF GREEK HISTORY.

The Historians.—We derive our knowledge of ancient Greece from native sources only. For the earliest times we have the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, which pass under the name of Homer. Modern criticism agrees with ancient in viewing them as the earliest remains of Greek literature that have come down to us. It is impossible to determine their date. In a general way we may say that they are at least three hundred years older than the next oldest Greek literature.

For the events of the early history of Greece were not accompanied by any contemporaneous historical account. Even the struggle with Persia remained, for nearly a generation, left to oral tradition. When Herodotus, about forty years after the battle of Marathon, began to write the history of the Persian wars, he had mainly this tradition to fall back upon, which was, however, neither complete nor entirely impartial. On his work, however, our knowledge of the Persian wars, in the main, depends. The first who recorded contemporary events is Thucydides, who narrates the history of the Athenian sway from the last battle against the Persians to the twenty-second year of the Peloponnesian war (411 B.C.).

Like Herodotus, Thucydides considers his subject as one complete whole. Hence, after a masterly introduction, in which he gives a suggestive summary of early Greek history, the Peloponnesian war is one subject which employs his thought and his pen. To this narrative the digressions, which are necessary to illustrate it, form episodes. One is the treachery of Pausanias (I., 128-134), which led to the appointment of the Athenians, by the unanimous voice of the allies, to the high position of treasurers of Greece; another, the rise and progress of the Athenian supremacy (I., 89-117).

Xenophon's *Hellenica* continue the history

of Thucydides as far as the battle of Mantinea (362 B.C.). Valuable as this is for the exact and truthful narrative of events which it contains, it is dry and uninteresting as compared with his *Return of the Ten Thousand* (*Anabasis*).

The Inscriptions.—The study of ancient Greek inscriptions, to which so great an impulse has been given during the last sixty years, throws a real, but not a considerable, light upon the history of Greece. None hitherto found are older than the seventh century B.C.; in the sixth century, and down to the Persian war they are rare; in the latter half of the fifth century they become more numerous, and there are many which have a direct connection with the history of Thucydides. They begin to grow numerous and legible as Greece declines. The greater part of the notices preserved in them relates to the time, not of her glory, but of her decay.

MIGRATIONS AND SETTLEMENTS AROUND THE COAST OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

HELLAS, in its widest acceptance, was the name given to all countries settled by the Hellenes. It included all branches of the Hellenic nation which had their language, manners, and culture in common, without regard to the position or extent of their abode.

Three different tribes were (since the eighth century B.C.) included in the common name of Hellenes.

They were:

I. The *Æolians*, an Aryan race, from which sprung the Ionian and Dorian tribes. Twelve *Æolian* colonies were found on the northwest coast of Asia Minor.

II. That part of the *Æolians* which, before historical times, had spread over the southern part of the Peloponnesus and the islands of the *Ægean* Sea, established themselves, finally, under the general name of *Ionians* (emigrants) on the more accessible parts of the western

coasts of Asia Minor. After the Doric invasion of the Peloponnesus they were joined by other emigrants from their old home. They filled the estuary land of the four great rivers (Mæander, Cayster, Hermus, and Caicus), which was called, after them, Ionia.

III. The Dorians, a tribe cognate with the Ionians, who in prehistoric times had settled in the Thessalian mountains. After 1100 B.C. they began to migrate southward, and finally found permanent abodes in the south of the Peloponnesus. The Southern Cyclades, Crete, Rhodes, and the southwest coast of Asia Minor, were also occupied by them.

From the Æolian and Ionian coast of Asia Minor issued those mariners who explored the interior of the Black Sea, on the one hand, and the coast of Italy on the other. The name of the Ionian Sea, which was retained by the waters intervening between Epirus and Sicily, and that of the Ionian Gulf, the term by which the Greeks designated the Adriatic Sea, are memorials of the fact that the southern and eastern coasts of Italy were, once upon a time, discovered by seafarers from Ionia. The oldest Greek settlement in Italy, Cumæ, was founded by the town of the same name on the coast of Asia Minor. Other Greeks soon followed in the path which those of Asia Minor had opened up. We may again distinguish three leading groups.

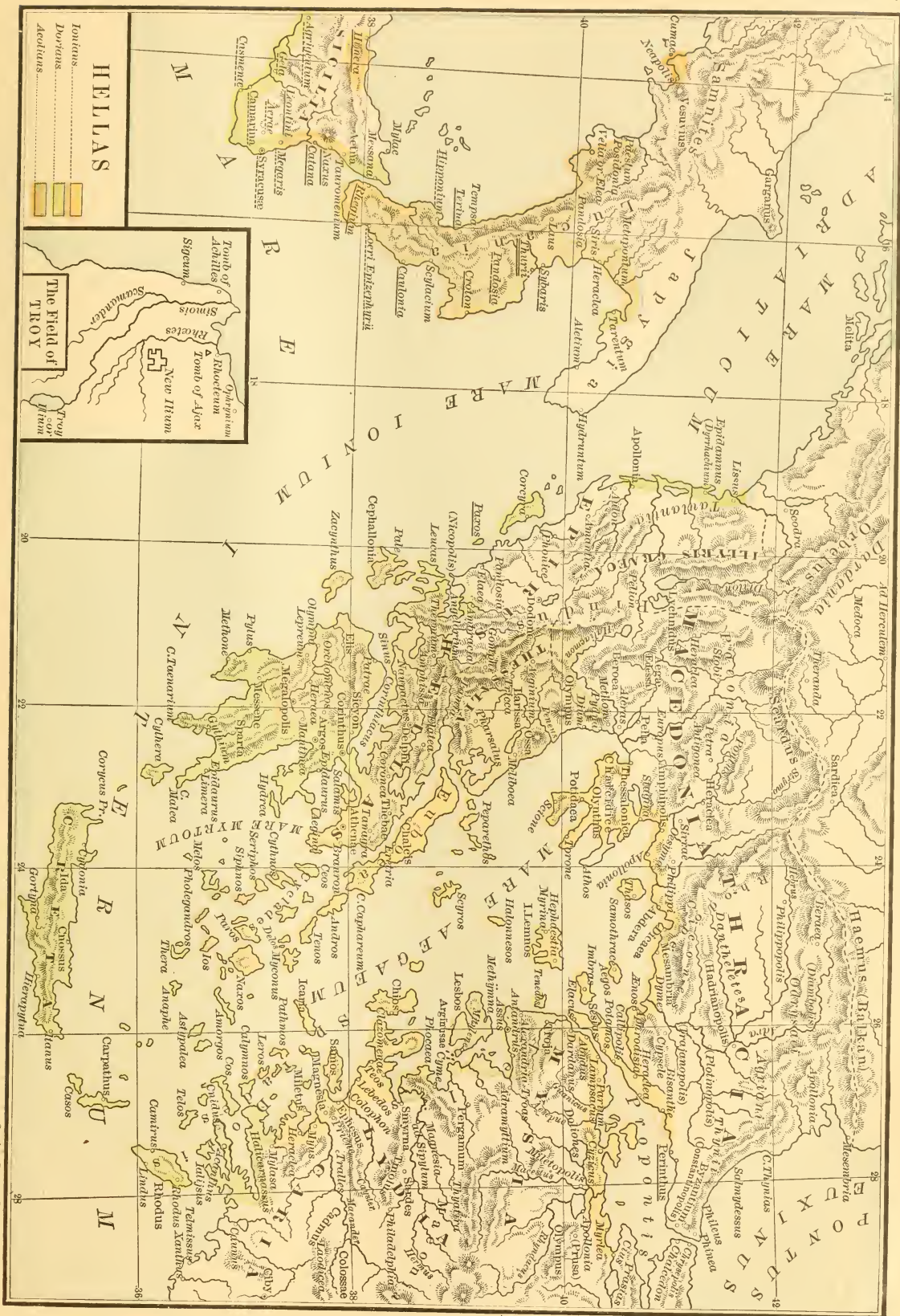
The original Ionian group, comprehended under the name of the Chalcidian towns, included in Italy, Cumæ, with the other Greek settlements near Vesuvius and Rhegium. In Sicily were five Ionic towns, Zancle (afterward Messina), Naxos, Catana, Leontini, and Himera. The Achæan group embraced Sybaris and the greater part of the cities of Magna Græcia. The Dorian group comprehended the majority of the Sicilian colonies, while in Italy nothing belonged to it but Tarentum and its offset, Heraclea.

We are accustomed to call these Hellenes *Greeks*, a name applied to them by the Romans. They were a remarkably handsome, intelligent race, which had an invention of their own called *the City*, which city in sending forth branches gave birth to others of the same description. One of these, Miletus, produced three hundred towns, and colonized the entire coast of the Black Sea. Others did the same, the Mediterranean Sea being encircled with a garland of flourishing cities. Each of these cities formed a sovereign state, which consisted simply of a town with a beach or a surrounding border of farms. What was the life of this city? A citizen performed but little manual labor; he was generally supported, and always served, by slaves. He needed,

however, but little help. He was very abstemious, olives, garlic, and a bit of dried fish constituting a meal. His wardrobe consisted of sandals, a small shirt, and a large mantle. His house was a narrow, ill-constructed cabin, which he only used for sleeping in. The citizen passed his life in the public thoroughfares discussing the best means for preserving and aggrandizing his city, canvassing its alliances, treaties, laws, and constitution. His occupation consisted, substantially, of public business and war. He had to be a politician and warrior under penalty of death. For most of these cities, built and scattered along the Mediterranean shores, were surrounded by barbarians eager to prey upon them. The citizen, therefore, was obliged to be under arms, for the rights of war were atrocious; a vanquished city was often devoted to destruction. A man might any day see his property pillaged, himself and his sons enslaved, buried in mines, or compelled by the lash to turn a mill.

War, in those days, was a combat between man and man, in which the victory belonged to the strongest and best trained. Consequently, the essential thing to insure victory (which meant liberty) was to render each warrior the most resistant, the strongest, and the most agile body possible.

Therefore, young people passed the greater part of the day in the gymnasium, wrestling and racing. It was their aim to produce strong, robust bodies, the nimblest and most beautiful possible, and no system of education ever succeeded better in obtaining them. The Greek ideal of a citizen was a man of a fine stock and growth, well-proportioned, active, and accomplished in all physical exercises. The great national festivals of the Hellenes, the Olympian, Pythian, Isthmian, and Nemean games, were the great promoters of physical culture. The victorious athlete in the foot-race gave his name to the Olympiad; his praises were chanted by the greatest poets. On returning to his native city he was received in triumph, and his strength and agility became the pride of the place. Every athlete, once crowned, was entitled to a statue. The Hellenes considered the perfection of the human form as attesting divinity; they made their idol of it, they glorified it on earth by making a divinity of it in heaven. Out of this conception statuary is born, which adorned the sanctuaries with motionless, peaceful, august effigies in which human nature recognized its heroes and its gods. Statuary, accordingly, is the central art of Hellas; other arts are related to it, accompany it, or imitate it. No other art has so well expressed the national Hellenic life: no other was so cultivated or so popular.



THE MAIN SETTLEMENT OF THE HELLENES.

The Land and Its Divisions.—The Southern and most strictly peninsular part of the large Southeastern peninsular of Europe has been, since very early times, the especial seat of the Hellenes. The Illyrians and Italians, whose example has been followed by all other European nations, called them Græci (Greeks) and their country Græcia (Greece).

Its southernmost peninsula, which is connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus (the Isthmus of Corinth), was designated by the populace Peloponnesus (the Island of Pelops) as if it were actually an island.

Its historic division into six districts answers to the natural configuration of a central plateau (Arcadia), around which are grouped the five other districts (Achaia, Elis, Messenia, Laconica, and Argolis, with Corinth). The country between Peloponnesus in the south, and Epirus and Thessaly in the north, had, during the independence of Greece, no particular name. It contained ten districts—Megaris, Attica, Bœotia, Phocis, Doris, Eastern Locris, Western Locris, Malis, Ætolia, and Acarnania. Not till Roman times was the name Hellas misappropriated as the collective name of these ten districts.

Along the Eastern coast of Hellas was the large island of Eubœa. In its centre it approaches the mainland very closely, being separated from it by a very narrow, shallow strait (the Euripus). It is only in the neighborhood of this strait that there are plains with soil fit for cultivation and here were found its principal towns Chalcis and Eretria, which during the eighth and seventh centuries were very powerful maritime states and founded numerous colonies on the northern shores of the Ægæan Sea and in Sicily and Lower Italy. This now was the Greece of history, a small country compared with its fame, which appears still smaller if you observe how divided it is; the principal chains on one side of the sea and the lateral chains of the other actually isolating the miniature districts from each other and making union well-nigh impossible. But attempts at a union of the cantons were continually made and met with varied success. These attempts form the principal subject of Greek history.

Early Attempts at Union.—In the earliest days of Hellenic occupation of the eastern shores of Greece there was formed an Achæan Empire centred in the principalities of Tiryns and Mycenæ (in Argolis), which, at one time embraced the whole of the Peloponnesus.

The Dorian Invasion.—This Achæan Empire was destroyed by the Dorians. The lions

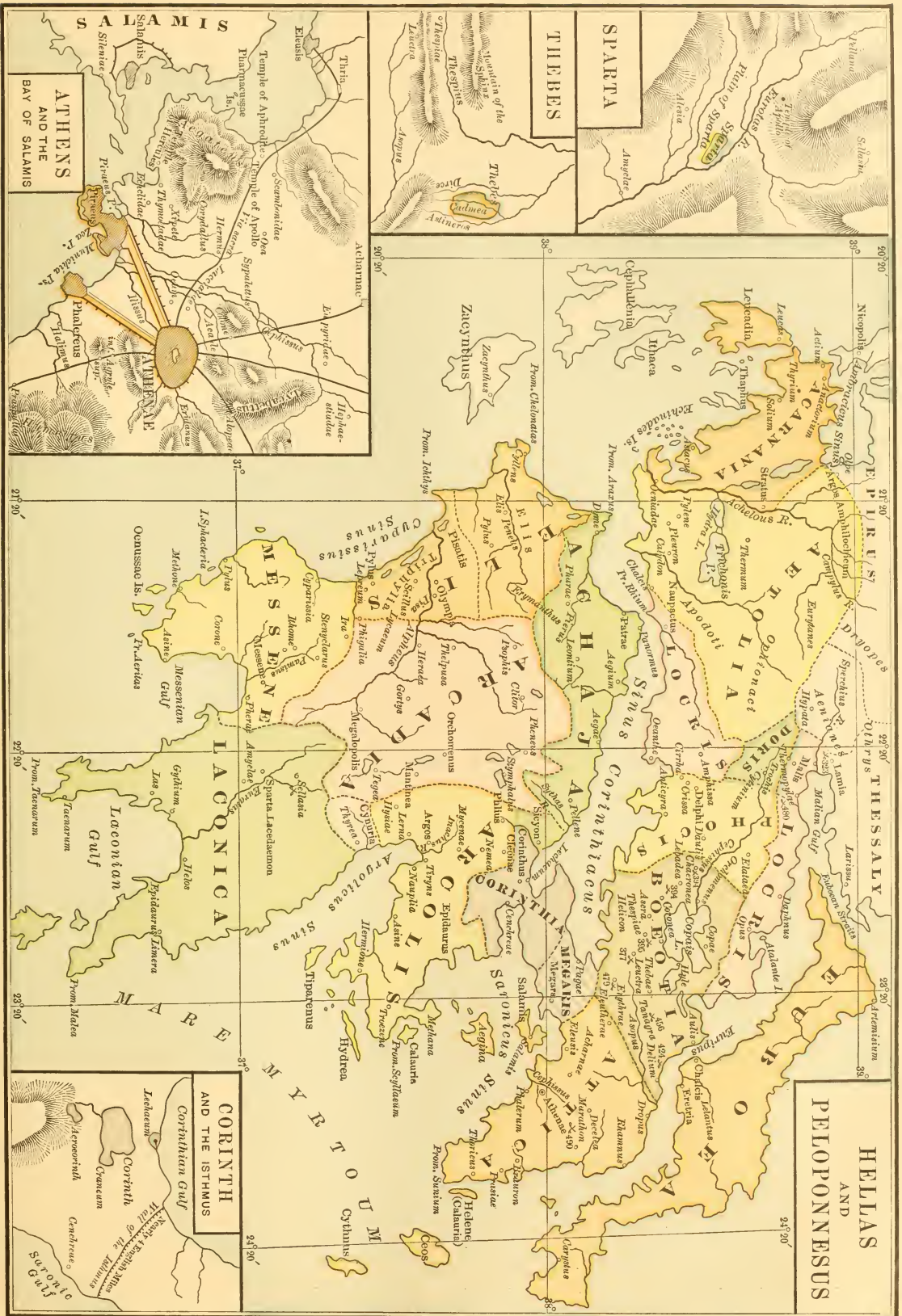
of its citadel were as little able to protect Mycenæ as the gold in its subterranean vaults, and in large bodies the sons of the Achæans had to abandon their well-preserved ancestral castles. Some of them conquered the Ionic population on the southern shore of the Corinthian gulf and gave for centuries to come their name (Achaia) to the old Ionic district, the former population of which passed over among their kinsmen in Attica.

Other Achæans were forced to Bœotia, where various tribes who had been driven from their home by the Doric invasion met in great masses.

Its bays, especially that of Aulis, became the places where the vessels of the fugitives assembled. The leadership over the emigrants fell naturally in the hands of the Achæans, whose royal houses had been accustomed to rule in that ancient world now falling to pieces. They settled first on the Thessalian coast, then they crossed through the sound (Hellespont) into the Propontis and by way of its islands reached the peninsula of Cyzicus. Here was reached the mainland, the great peninsula of Mount Ida.

Here a conquest of territory took place, and a long and arduous struggle with the native states. Here the walls of Dardanian princes resisted the sons of the Achæans, who in order to support themselves during the struggle composed songs of the deeds of their ancient lords in war, the Atridæ, and nourished their courage by recalling the god-like powers of Achilles. These songs (Homer's Iliad) have not vanished, but have lasted to our days as the authentic reminiscences of the warlike deeds of the sons of the Achæans in the lands of the Dardanians.

The Doric Conquest of the Peloponnesus.—While the Achæans were thus conquering the peninsula of Mount Ida, the Dorians were completing the conquest of Peloponnesus. After having conquered Tiryns and Mycenæ, they built the new Doric capital, Argos, at the foot of the ancient rock-fortress of Larissa, which soon became the centre of the strongest state in the Peloponnesus, its territory at one time extending far southward along the east coast. The Spartans drove them out of their southern territory and then out of Cynuria. Sparta had now all the country between Mount Taygetus and the Eastern Sea. The territory remaining now to Argos was a district of from eight to ten miles long and four or five wide, Laconica, the Spartan land, being about the same size. The loss of territory was followed by a decline of authority, and Sparta began to rank, instead of Argos, as the leading state among the Greeks.



The two mountain ranges, Taygetus and Parnon, embraced the valley of the Eurotas, the upper half of which contains the largest and most fertile plain of Laconica, and was therefore at all times its political centre. Its primæval name Lacedæmon was accordingly applied not only to the capital, but to the whole domain belonging to it, which formed the central and politically predominant part of the Dorian conquests in the Peloponnesus. The Laconic name was specially applied to the old Achæan population; from this word comes Laconica, the usual geographical designation of the whole region.

Quite close to the old Achæan city Amyclæ there grew up the Doric capital Sparta, which, originally a mere camp, in course of time came to be regularly built, though never fortified. The laws and customs of Sparta, which were said to have been made by Lycurgus, forbade this distinctly. Their whole life was a preparation for the day of battle, and men thus trained require no walls. Between 750-650 B.C. the Spartans conquered the Messenians, a hardy Doric race like themselves. They now possessed the southern part of the Peloponnesus from sea to sea.

In the district of Elis in the west of the Peloponnesus, at Olympia, was an ancient sanctuary of Zeus (the God of life), where once in four years a great festival was held. Under Spartan protection, this Olympian festival became the most important meeting-place for all the Greeks, and Sparta as its protector was tacitly acknowledged as the leading state in Greece. Most of the cities were her allies, and sent troops when summoned, the Spartan kings acting as commanders of the whole united army.

ATTICA AND THE ATHENIANS.

Attica the Rallying Point for the Ionians.

—In the midst of the popular movements which had revolutionized all the states from Olympus to Cape Malea, Attica alone had remained tranquil and unmoved like a rock in the sea on which the waves of the agitated waters break without submerging it. The Ionians had there, at least, succeeded in defending their nationality against the conquering Dorians. Here the Ionians from all sides found a refuge, and Attica became the principal starting-point of the Ionic remigration to the Asiatic shores along the high-road marked out for them by the double series of the Cyclades. Thus the ancient bond of union between the opposite coasts of the Ægæan was knit anew most closely in Attica. Its only actual city, Athenæ (nearly five miles

distant from the shore of the Saronic gulf), gradually became to the Ionians what Sparta was for the Dorians.

High up in the mountains of Phocis, in the narrow rocky valley of the Pleistos, was the town of Delphi, where Apollo, the God of Light, had his temple and gave his oracles. Twelve tribes had formed a union to protect this sanctuary, and met twice a year in an Amphictyonic Council (*i.e.*, council of the neighbors). Sparta was for a long time the favorite of the Delphi God, the strong arm for his mundane plans, and intended by him to occupy the position of a federal capital in Hellas. But Sparta gradually withdrew from Delphi, and retired upon her Peloponnesian interests, for which Olympia became the new centre. And now Delphi became to Athens what Olympia was to Sparta, and, as protector of Delphi, Athens aspired to be, if not the leading state among the Hellenes, anyhow the leading state among the Ionians.

The Laws of Draco.—Originally the Ionians in Attica were ruled by a *basileus* (which meant *Ruler and Priest together*), then by an archon (which simply meant *Ruler*). At first the Archons were hereditary; then they ceased to be hereditary and they held their office only for ten years, and finally (683 B.C.) nine archons were appointed to serve one year only. They were chosen from among the *Eupatridæ* (nobles) and ruled without written laws. The two other classes, the *Geōmōrī* (farmers) and the *Demiurgi* (artisans) demanded, 624 B.C., written laws. Hereupon, a Eupatrid, Draco, ascertained the rules which the judges commonly went by, and wrote them down. The fact that through Draco the law became a public, instead of a private, system was a great step in the development of political life, but it had done nothing to relieve the distress and bankruptcy of the common people, and a social revolution seemed imminent. The farmers had borrowed money at very high interest from the wealthy, giving their farms in pledge for the payment of the debt, which increased continually from the heavy interest. Many farmers gradually had become like laborers on a farm once their own. Thus the small farmers, the back-bone of every country, were threatened with total extinction.

The Laws of Solon.—Solon, while Archon Eponymus (*i.e.*, he from whom the year is named), persuaded the wealthy to submit to a *Seisachtheia* (removal of burdens), whereby debts secured by mortgage were reduced about twenty-seven per cent. by the introduction of a new standard of coinage.

Solon was now given authority to make a

new constitution for Athens. His plan was to weaken the nobles. He, therefore, gave every free-born man a vote in the assembly, where laws were enacted, archons elected, and officers held accountable for their conduct. Besides this assembly he established a council of four hundred to prepare the business that was to come before the assembly, where nothing was to be proposed that had not been agreed to by the council. But the councillors were to be elected yearly by the people.

Property, instead of birth, should give rank, the people being divided into four classes, according to their income. Only the three richest classes could hold office, but they had to pay the taxes, and to equip themselves as soldiers. The wealthiest could serve as archons, while only those who had held that office were eligible to the ancient *Court of the Areopagus*, which repealed antiquated laws and looked after the morals of the people.

Pisistratus.—But, in spite of Solon's great improvements, trouble continued among the Athenians until Pisistratus restored order by taking the chief power in his own hands. Such a one was called a tyrant (lord), not a term of reproach, but simply indicating that he exercised monarchical power in a state where there was no monarch by law.

Pisistratus upheld the Solonian constitution, but he managed that the people should always choose archons who suited him (he

was a political boss). He ruled Athens (560–527) with mildness and wisdom, erected beautiful public buildings, encouraged art, founded the first library, and was the first to collect the scattered songs of Homer. He bequeathed his government to his son, Hippias (527–510), who conducted it after the manner of his father, until his brother, Hipparchus was murdered (514 B.C.). Then he became cruel, and was consequently forced to leave Athens. He took refuge with Darius, King of Persia.

Cleisthenes.—The expulsion of Hippias was followed by fresh commotions, which were allayed by the constitution of Cleisthenes, which made Attica a pure democracy. All freemen were admitted to citizenship and divided into ten tribes, each of which sent fifty representatives to the council (which was thus increased from four hundred to five hundred members), and also chose a general. The ten generals commanded the army in daily turn. These ten tribes were political and religious unions, but did not form connected territorial divisions.

To protect the thus created democracy ostracism was established. This was a purely political act of the highest power in the state (the sovereign popular assembly) to decree, by means of a secret ballot, the banishment of any citizen who endangered the public liberty without process of law.

THE PERSIAN WARS.

WHAT LED TO THE WARS.

Persian Conquest of Ionia.—In the course of the sixth century B.C., Cræsus, King of Lydia, conquered the Greek towns on the coast of Asia Minor, and, when his empire was conquered by Cyrus (546 B.C.), Harpagus reduced the Greek towns and made them tributary to Persia. After the Scythian expedition, when 600 Greek vessels had formed a united fleet, on the fidelity of which the fate of the whole Persian army had depended, there was awakened a deep-felt desire for national independence, which made it easy for a desperate demagogue to persuade them to revolt. (See Plate VIII.)

Aristagoras.—The failure of an attempt on Naxos by Aristagoras, governor of Miletus, having rendered the security of his appointment precarious, he persuaded the Ionian towns to revolt. They sought and obtained

aid from Athens and Eretria, and now sailing to Ephesus, the confederates marched up the valley of the Cayster and took Sardes, the residence of the Satrap of Lydia, at the first onset. It caught fire during the plundering and was burnt. Aristagoras now hastily retreated with his allies, but they were overtaken and suffered a severe defeat from the Persians.

The Athenians and Eretrians sailed home. Although the expedition had been a failure, this was speedily forgotten for the glory of its one achievement, the burning of Sardes. Everywhere along the coast of Asia Minor revolts broke out. If a great man had been at the head of the movement a successful issue might probably have been secured, but Aristagoras was unequal to the occasion, and the struggle for independence, which had promised so fair, was soon put down. Miletus, the cradle of the revolt, was ruthlessly destroyed (494 B.C.), all the other Greek towns had to ac-

ATTEMPTS TO CONQUER GREECE.

cept Persian garrisons, and the power of the great king was once more firmly established over the coasts and islands of the Propontis and the Ægæan Sea.

One thing remained, however : to take vengeance upon the foreigners (Athenians and Eretrians) who had dared to lend their aid to the king's revolted subjects, and had borne a part in the burning of Sardis.

FIRST ATTEMPT TO CONQUER GREECE, IN 492 B.C.

Two years after the fall of Miletus a Persian army, commanded by Mardonius, the son-in-law of Darius, crossed the Hellespont, and marched toward Greece along the coast of Thrace, the fleet accompanying it. But while the fleet was sailing round the promontory of Mount Athos (Plate VIII.) a hurricane arose and destroyed 300 ships with 20,000 men. At the same time the land army was defeated by the Thracians, and Mardonius was forced to turn back to Asia.

This interrupted for the brief space of two years the great international struggle between Persia and Greece.

SECOND ATTEMPT TO CONQUER GREECE, IN 490 B.C.

THE second expedition, under command of Datis and Artaphernes, sailed from the Bay of Issus, and entered the Ægæan Sea. Naxos was sacked, but on the sacred isle of Delos a grand act of homage was performed to the divinities of the holy isle. All the world was to perceive that the Persian King had no thought of despoiling the Hellenic national divinities of their honors; but, on the contrary, wished to restore the ancient festivals which once united the European and Asiatic shores. From Delos they sailed to Eubœa and besieged Eretria. On the sixth day the gates were opened by traitors. The Persians razed the city to the ground, then crossed the Euripus, and landed on the plain of Marathon, twenty-two miles from Athens (Plate X.). Here the Persians were met by 9,000 townsmen of Athens, assisted by 1,000 men from the little city of Plataeæ.

On September 12th, 490 B.C., the Greeks, under Miltiades, fell upon the Persians and forced them to retreat. The Athenians lost only 192 men, whose memory was honored by the erection of a monument on the spot where they had fallen.

THIRD ATTEMPT TO CONQUER GREECE, IN 480 B.C.

The March of Xerxes.—Darius I. was succeeded in 486 B.C. by his son Xerxes, who

at once began to collect an enormous force for invading Greece. In every country between the Mediterranean and the Indus troops were levied. Between Sestos and Abydos two bridges of boats were made over the Hellespont. A fleet of 1,200 war vessels and 3,000 freight vessels assembled on the coast of Ionia and Phœnicia. At Acanthus a canal was cut through the promontory of Mount Athos that the fleet might avoid the dangerous passage around it. In 481 B.C. the troops of forty-six nations, all dressed and armed in the manner of their native countries, were assembled in the plain of Critalla in Cappadocia. In the spring of 480 they crossed the Hellespont and marched along the southern coast of Thrace, and straight across the ridge of Chalcidice into the corner of the Thermæan gulf. In its innermost recess both divisions (fleet and army) of the armada united. After a short rest both divisions advanced and encountered the enemy about the same time.

Thermopylæ.—The army encountered the Greeks at Thermopylæ (*i.e.*, *warm gate*), at the head of the Malian Gulf. Here the only road, which led from Thessaly into Central Hellas, ran between the mountains and the marshy seashore, and at one place the swamp came so near the mountain that there was hardly room for the road to run between (see Plate X.). At this pass 7,000 Greeks under Leonidas were placed. The Greek fleet of 270 vessels under Eurybiades was posted near Artemisium at the northern of the Eubœan straits to prevent the Persian fleet getting past and landing men in the rear of the Greeks at Thermopylæ. A difficult mountain road, by which the Persians might cross and attack them from behind, was guarded by 1,000 Phocians.

During three days the Persians were held at bay on land and sea. But, on the night following, a body of Persians succeeded in crossing the mountains. When Leonidas saw what had happened he ordered his army hastily to retire. But himself, with 300 Spartans and 700 Thespians, remained to die at their post. When the Greeks on the fleet heard that Xerxes had succeeded in forcing his way to Thermopylæ they thought it no use for the fleet to remain at Artemisium and sailed to the Island of Salamis.

Salamis.—Here the Greeks being, through the contrivance of Themistocles, surrounded by the enemy and forced to fight, won (September 20th, 480 B.C.) a brilliant victory over the Persian fleet. Xerxes, who had avenged the burning of Sardes (in 500 B.C.) by the total destruction of Athens, retreated to the Hellespont, leaving Mardonius in Thessaly with an army of 260,000 to complete the conquest of the country.



THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

Platææ.—This force was (September, 479) routed by the Greeks under Pausanias at Platææ. This was the first decisive victory of the whole war, for Marathon and Salamis had only broken the courage of the enemy, while here his power, together with that of his allies,

was annihilated. Therefore, the day of Platææ is the real day of the salvation of Hellas; the danger has passed away and thus ends a decennium of Greek history which far surpasses all its previous periods in events of an extraordinary nature and of momentous results.

AFTER THE PERSIAN WARS.

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR, 431-404.

The General Cause.—During the great struggle with Persia, Sparta, though she dealt the death-blow at Platææ, had been slow and untrustworthy as the leader of Greece. To Athens, which had displayed the greatest courage and enterprise, that war gave political supremacy. Fifty years after the battle of Platææ, Athens was the mistress of more than a thousand miles of coast along Asia Minor; she held as dependencies more than forty islands; she controlled the straits between Europe and Asia; her fleets ranged the Mediterranean and the Black Sea uncontrolled; she had monopolized the trade of all the adjoining countries; her magazines were full of the most valuable objects of commerce. From the ashes of the Persian fire Athens had risen up so supremely beautiful that her temples, her statues, her works of art, in their exquisite perfection, have since had no parallel in the world.

But her very prosperity made her arrogant, haughty, and tyrannical, which estranged her allies, and made her enemies bold to attack her. This was the real cause of the Peloponnesian war (431-404). Though in the main a war for supremacy between the two great powers of Greece, Athens, and Sparta, it was also, to a certain extent, a struggle of principles, and likewise, though to a lesser extent, a war of races.

Speaking generally, the Ionian Greeks were banded together on the one side, and made common cause with the Athenians; while the Dorian Greeks, with a few remarkable exceptions, gave their aid to the Spartans. But political sympathy determined, to a greater degree than race, the side to which each state should attach itself. Athens and Sparta were respectively, in the eyes of the Greeks, the representatives of the two principles of democracy and oligarchy; and it was felt that according as the one or the other preponderated the cause of oligarchical or democratic government was in the ascendant.

The Immediate Causes of Hostilities.—

Epidamnus (Plate VIII.), a colony of Corcyra, being hard pressed by her banished nobles, and having applied in vain to Corcyra for assistance, had admitted within her walls a body of Corinthian troops. Hence the war between Corcyra and Corinth. The Corcyræans, knowing they were no match for the Corinthians, conclude an alliance with the Athenians, who, through this alliance extend their authority to the coasts of the Ionian Sea, hitherto the exclusive domain of the Corinthian merchants.

A second offence was offered by the Athenians to the Corinthians, by the treatment of the Corinthian colony of Potidæa. (See Plate VIII.) The Potidæans, in disgust at a command issued by the Athenians, that they should pull down the walls of their city, had revolted from Athens. Although supported by Corinth, they were conquered.

At a congress of the Peloponnesian powers, held at Sparta by desire of the Corinthians, war against Athens was resolved upon, principally at the instigation of the Corinthians.

The Ten Years' War.—The war commenced with the invasion of Attica by the Peloponnesians under Archidamus, which was regularly repeated every year; the Athenians making reprisals by sending a fleet to ravage the coasts of Peloponnesus. The inhabitants of Attica, by the advice of Pericles, sought refuge within the walls of the city, where, in consequence of overcrowding, broke out the terrible plague so ably described by Thucydides, the contemporary historian of this war (B. ii., ch. 47-52). Among its numerous victims was the great Pericles (439 B.C.), after whose death the Athenian democracy degenerated into an unbridled oligarchy.

Neither party obtaining any decided advantage, and the generals of either side having fallen at Amphipolis (422), a truce for fifty years was negotiated by Nicias (421).

The Sicilian Expedition.—The Athenians had for some time been interfering in the affairs of the Greek cities in Sicily, and in 416

B.C. the city of Egesta applied to them for help against Selinus and Syracuse, the great Doric towns of the West. (See Plate XIV.)

Alcibiades persuaded them to grant the desired assistance, and send to Sicily a fleet of 134 ships under himself, Nicias, and Lamachus. After the occupation of the Sicilian towns of Naxos and Catana, Alcibiades was recalled to answer a charge of participation in a sacrilege. He escaped to Argos, but was condemned to death in his absence, and his property was confiscated. The expedition, having now lost the only man who could have made it a success, was doomed to be a failure. Lamachus died in 414, and Nicias, a sluggish old man, was not able to cope with the difficulties. At the advice of Alcibiades, now the implacable enemy of Athens, the Spartans sent a small fleet under Gylippus to the assistance of Syracuse. The Athenians, although reinforced by seventy-three ships under Demosthenes, were not only unable to take the city, but suffered terribly from sickness and want. Finally abandoning their fleet, and trying to retreat by land, they were overtaken and partly killed, partly captured. Nicias and Demosthenes were executed in Syracuse, and 7,000 prisoners were sent to the quarries.

By the advice of Alcibiades the Spartans occupied the village of Decelea, in Attica; the closing years of the war are, therefore, known as:

The Deceleian War.—The ruin of the Sicilian expedition was one of the greatest calamities that ever befel any nation. If the Spartans had acted with energy they might have crushed Athens at once, but they missed their opportunity, and Athens, powerful in

herself, when necessity armed all her citizens, held out till the seventh year. At length internal factions impaired the strength of the state; popular orators excited the jealousy of the multitude, suspicions and assassinations impeded and disgraced the government. Alcibiades, who (June, 408) had been recalled, and had rendered essential services to his country, was a second time driven into exile (407) with several able generals, while others were put to death.

After this act of folly, the unskilfulness and imprudence of the commander of the Athenian fleet stationed near Ægos Potamos (on the Hëllespont; see Plate VIII.) afforded a victory to the Spartan Lysander (404) by which the last resource of Athens, her fleet, was a second time destroyed. Then the enemy appeared in the Piræus; the people made a courageous resistance; and it was only the extremity of famine that forced Athens to demand peace of Sparta.

Fall of Athens.—The Spartans held a council of all the confederates, who, after twenty-seven years of warfare, had destroyed the Empire of Athens. On this occasion the Bœotians and Corinthians insisted that the city should be burned and all the people sold into slavery. But Sparta resolved that she never would suffer a city to be destroyed by the hands of Hellenes which had acted so noble a part in the defence of their common country. Athens ceased to be a political power, but destroyed she was not. On the contrary, the groves of the Lyceum and the Academy were the seat of a more glorious empire than the fate of arms can bestow or take away.

PERSIA AND HELLAS.

FROM THE BATTLE OF SALAMIS, IN 480 B.C., TO THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT, 323 B.C.

Persia After 480 B.C.—Xerxes I. survived the battle of Salamis almost fifteen years, during which time the Persians were forced by the Greeks wholly to withdraw from Europe.

The islands of the Ægæan, the Greek colonies of Asia Minor, the coasts of Thrace, and the command of the Hëllespont were one by one wrested from the Great King by Athenian skill and enterprise.

For twelve years no Persian fleet ventured to dispute with them the sovereignty of the seas, and when at last (466 B.C.) a naval force

was collected to protect Cilicia and Cyprus it was defeated and destroyed by Cimon at the Eurymedon (Plate XI. 2).

Artaxerxes I.—Soon after this (465) Xerxes died and was succeeded by his youngest son Artaxerxes I., a mild prince, who ruled nearly forty years. He was forced (449) to acknowledge the independence of the Asiatic Greeks. The Greek cities ceded by this treaty (the peace of Callias) to the Athenian confederacy included all those from the mouth of the Hëllespont to Phaselis in Lycia, but did not include the cities on the shore of the Black Sea.

The prestige of the central government gradually weakened, and when he died (in 425

B.C.) it seemed for a moment as if the empire was doomed to destruction.

The Children of Artaxerxes.—He was succeeded by his only legitimate son Xerxes II., who, after a reign of forty-five days, was assassinated by his half brother Sogdianus, who in his turn, after a reign of twenty-eight weeks, was murdered by another brother Ochus.

This Ochus was married to his half-sister, Parysatis, a daughter of Artaxerxes I., and took the name of Darius II. His disastrous reign lasted nineteen years. Revolt succeeded revolt, and though most of the insurrections were quelled, it was at the cost of what remained of Persian honor and self-respect.

Egypt drove out the Persians and was able to retain its independence for nearly sixty years (405–346 B.C.). It was some compensation for this loss that, in consequence of the Athenian disasters in Sicily, the authority of the Great King was once more established over the Greek cities in Asia Minor. Persia invited the Spartans to Asia, and by the treaties which she concluded with them, and the aid which she gave them, reacquired without a struggle all the Greek cities of the coast. It was her policy, however, not to depress Athens too much, a policy which was steadily pursued till the personal ambition of the younger Cyrus caused a departure from the line dictated by prudence.

Cyrus Minor.—When Darius II. died, in 404 B.C., two sons survived him, the elder, Artaxerxes, the younger, Cyrus. Cyrus had hoped that, through the influence of his mother, Parysatis, he might obtain the throne on the plea that he was the eldest son born during his father's reign. Angry at the failure of his hopes, he grew angrier still when Tissaphernes charged him with a plot for his brother's assassination. It would have cost him his life, but for the intercession of Parysatis, who not only saved him from an ignominious death, but also obtained for him his former satrapy of Asia Minor.

Yet, his brother's clemency entirely failed to conciliate him. For on his return to Sardes he devoted himself solely to the arduous task of dethroning his brother. Under various pretences he enlisted large bodies of Greeks, whose pre-eminent superiority over his own countrymen he had early recognized. There were many just at this time who had grown up during the long Peloponnesian war who were only acquainted with arms, and who were the first "soldiers," properly so-called, as they enlisted for hire : *solidus*, a piece of money.

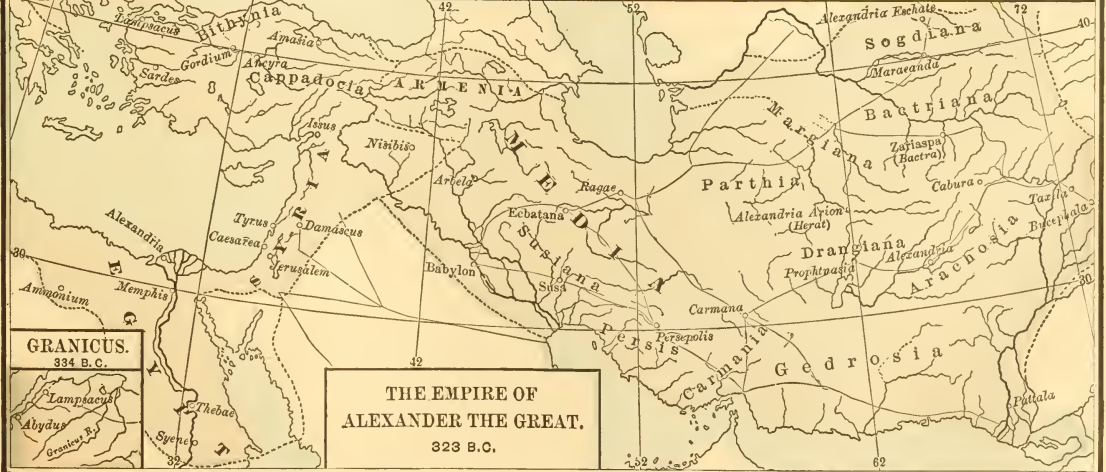
The Anabasis.—In the spring of 401 B.C. Cyrus broke up from Sardes with 100,000

Asiatics and nearly 13,000 Greeks, giving out that the expedition was directed against the mutinous mountaineers of Pisidia (see march on Map XI. 2). Passing without opposition through the Cilician gates they arrived at Tarsus, from whence they marched to Thapsacus on the Euphrates, where the real object of the expedition was disclosed. About six months after their departure from Sardes, they reached the fertile plains of Babylonia. At Cunaxa, near Babylon, a battle was fought which made an end to Cyrus's life and the civil war. The retreat of the remnant of the Greeks under Xenophon in 400 B.C. (*The Retreat of the Ten Thousand*) became one of the great feats of history. The story of this march through snow, over rugged mountains, and across rapid currents, is told in the *Anabasis*, the principal work of Xenophon, which describes the retreat from Cunaxa to the Pontic coast.

Rivalry between Sparta and Thebes.—The greater part of those who returned with Xenophon entered the service of Sparta, who led them afresh into Asia Minor, and under the leadership of Agesilaus made the Persians tremble for their dominion. Artaxerxes II. protected himself by large sums of gold, by means of which he excited internal commotions in Greece, and obliged the Spartans to recall Agesilaus.

Sparta, having lost the mastery of the sea, was glad to conclude a peace with Persia which should give her the undisputed mastery in Greece (387 B.C.). The peace of Antalcidas was glorious for Persia which got the Greek cities in Asia; the Persian King became supreme arbiter in the affairs of Greece, but delegated to Sparta the power of preserving order among the Greek cantons. The Spartans were now the absolute masters of Greece.

But it was soon discovered that, instead of the freedom promised by them, only another Empire had been established, and the many oppressions which the allies had to undergo were rendered still more intolerable by the overweening pride and harshness of the Spartan commanders. At this juncture Epaminondas arose at Thebes. In the confidence of peace a Spartan general had gained possession of the Theban citadel. The seizure was declared unjust at Sparta, but nevertheless Sparta had kept it. Those who denounced the outrage were simply exiled from Thebes. These exiles, led by Pelopidas, delivered their country from the Spartans. From that moment the Thebans sought to destroy Sparta. They would not have obtained this object by the numerical force of their armies, if Epaminondas had not been able to conquer them by



his superior strategy. At Leuctra (371 B.C.) they lost forever the prize of the Peloponnesian war—the sovereignty of Greece. A second victory at Mantinea completed the ruin of the Spartan power, but Epaminondas was killed (362 B.C.). It was Epaminondas who had raised Thebes to its great power; there was no one like him left in Thebes, and after his death its authority quickly passed away.

Macedonian Supremacy.—But Epaminondas had left behind an apt pupil in the person of the young King of Macedonia (see Plate VIII.), who had been educated by him while he resided as an hostage at Thebes. With the knowledge eagerly imbibed from Epaminondas, Philip of Macedon combined what the latter wanted, namely, the power of a monarch and the boldness of an enterprising conqueror. Although the people of Macedonia were counted as barbarians, the royal family were Greeks from Argos, and they did much to introduce Greek civilization among their subjects. Philip soon found an opportunity of interfering in the affairs of Greece, by professing to defend the temple of Apollo, at Delphi, which had been robbed by the Phocians. After having conquered the Phocians, he occupied Delphi, and gave the temple back to its managers. His reward was great. The votes which the Phocians had had in the Amphictyonic Council were transferred to Philip, and he was given the right of presiding at the Pythian games. He was now the acknowledged champion of the god Apollo, and had gained the right of interfering in Greek affairs whenever he could make out that any wrong had been done to the god or his temple (346 B.C.). Having thus gained admittance as a member of the Hellenic Confederacy, he made use of this position to unite all the Greek states under his leadership, in order to absorb them in Macedonia. Athens at length took arms in the cause of expiring independence. The decisive battle was fought at Chæronea (338 B.C.). The victory remained to Philip, who, soon after, assembled a congress at Corinth, and was named General of the Confederate Greeks in the war to be undertaken against Persia. But in 336 B.C. he was assassinated at Ægæ, and that war was reserved for his greater son, Alexander.

Alexander was scarcely twenty years old when he ascended the throne, and one of the first acts of his reign was to force the Greeks to choose him as commander-in-chief of the forces destined to act against Persia.

Condition of Persia in 336 B.C.—Artaxerxes II. had left to his son and successor, Artaxerxes III., a decaying empire. He was a prince of more vigor and spirit than any

monarch since Darius Hystaspes, and the power, reputation, and general prosperity of the empire were greatly advanced during his reign. But he was poisoned (338 B.C.) by his vizier, Bogoas, who, after murdering all his brothers, raised Arses, youngest son of Artaxerxes III., to the throne.

Two years later Arses, with all his children, was murdered by Bogoas, who now placed on the throne a personal friend of his, Codomanus, who took the name of Darius III. (336 B.C.).

Superior, morally, to the greater number of his predecessors, Darius III. did not possess sufficient intellectual ability to enable him to grapple with the difficulties of the circumstances in which he was placed.

The Macedonian invasion of Asia, which had commenced before he mounted the throne, failed to alarm him as it ought to have done, and he took no sufficient measures to guard his empire against the attack with which it was threatened.

The Greek Invasion of Asia.—Alexander, on coming to the throne, found everything ready for the invasion of Persia. The army, though not numbering above 40,000 men, comprised troops and appliances for every kind of service. Led by Alexander, it was such a force as there had never yet been in history, and could, probably, without much difficulty, have conquered the entire world.

This remarkable army crossed the Hellespont in the spring of 334 B.C. The battle near the Granicus (May, 334 B.C.) placed Asia Minor at his feet, and the death of Memnon, the only Persian general equal to the task of checking him, allowed him to advance into the heart of Persia. The Persian army was well-nigh annihilated in the pass of Issus (November, 333 B.C.).

Darius III. retreated across the Euphrates, but instead of pursuing him, Alexander turned south into Phœnicia. Damascus was taken, and the Phœnician seaports, except Tyre, surrendered without a blow.

This caused the Phœnician fleet employed by the Persians to break up, and the best chance of the Persians against Alexander was now gone. Tyre was besieged and captured. Egypt hailed him as a deliverer from the Persians. Here he founded the city of Alexandria at the western mouth of the Nile, the future rival of Rome. At length (331 B.C.) the decisive moment came.

A new army had been collected by the Persian king from his eastern dominions, and was strongly posted about thirty miles from the site of Nineveh, awaiting Alexander's at-

tack. The battle was fought in October, at Gaugamela, twenty miles distant from Arbela, and ended with the total rout of the Persian host, the flight of Darius, and the fall of his Empire.

Alexander the Great.—Alexander returned in triumphal progress to Babylon, and went from thence in imperial pomp to Susa. Here he gave his army a rest, and carried out one part of his great scheme for the permanent union of the conquerors and the conquered by intermarriage. Darius was then pursued, first to Ecbatana, next to Rhagæ, and Bactria, where the hapless monarch was seized and finally murdered by the satrap Bessus.

The mysterious East still alluring him on, Alexander, exploring, conquering, and founding cities, at last reached the river Hyphasis (327 B.C.), where his army refused to proceed farther in the unknown regions. But instead of retracing his steps he built vessels and descended the Indus, and thus arrived at the Indian Ocean.

From here the fleet, under Nearchus, sailed through the Persian Gulf to the mouth of the Euphrates and Tigris, while Alexander himself accompanied the bulk of the army through the Iranian deserts to Babylon, which he made the capital of his Empire, which now reached from the Adriatic to the Indus, and from the steppes of Central Asia to the Indian Ocean. In the midst of the immense labors of regulating this Empire he perished (323 B.C.), either by poison or by intemperance, having scarcely completed his thirty-second year. His children being yet infants, his chief generals provided each for himself, and only thought of conciliating the greedy soldiery.

HELLAS AND WESTERN ASIA AFTER THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

The Civil Wars.—For a few brief years a Greek ruler had held in his hand the whole intellectual vigor of the Hellenic race, combined with the whole material resources of the East. After his death, the work to which his life had been devoted, the establishment of Hellenism in the East, was by no means destroyed; but his Empire had barely been united when it was again dismembered, and amid the constant quarrels of the different states that were formed out of its ruins, the diffusion of Greek culture in the East was prosecuted on a reduced scale.

Eight years after the death of Alexander, Antigonus endeavored to bring the whole Empire under his sceptre. The result of this was a long and bloody war (315–301) in the course of which every member of the family of Alex-

ander perished. It was ended by the battle of Ipsus (in Phrygia) in which Antigonus fell.

The conquerors, Seleucus and Lysimachus, divided the dominions of Alexander afresh. As was natural, they took to themselves the lion's share. The greater part of Asia Minor was made over to Lysimachus, and formed the short-lived kingdom of Thrace (until 281 B.C.). Seleucus, already the Lord of the countries between the Indus and the Euphrates, received Cappadocia, Phrygia, Upper Syria, and Northern Mesopotamia. Cilicia was given to Cassander's brother Pleistarchus. Cassander, who ruled over Macedonia and Greece, did not receive any additions to his dominions, neither did Ptolemy, the King of Egypt. The son of the vanquished Antigonus, Demetrius, retained nothing but the island of Cyprus. It was reconquered, however, by Ptolemy, in 293 B.C. From this time Cyprus remained in undisputed possession of the Egyptian crown.

The Division of 301.—Thus, after the battle of Ipsus, the Empire of Alexander had split up into seven independent states, of decidedly Hellenistic character, in which Greek was the language of the government, of inscriptions and coinage, and in some of which Greek art, literature, and learning reached a high development. These seven states were (see Plate XII.):

I. Syria under the Seleucidæ. Capital *at first*, Seleucia on the Tigris, *afterward* Antiochia on the Orontes.

II. Egypt under the Ptolemies or Lagidæ. Capital, Alexandria.

III. Thrace under Lysimachus. Capital, Lysimacheia on the neck of the Thracian Chersonnese.

IV. Macedonia under Cassander. Capital, Pella.

V. The independent state of Rhodes. Capital, Rhodes. (Plate XII.).

VI. Cilicia under Pleistarchus, Cassander's brother. Capital, Tarsus.

VII. Cyprus under Demetrius, the son of Antigonus. Capital, Salamis.

The Hellenic States After 190.—In the course of time many changes were introduced until 190 B.C. there remained the following Hellenic states:

MACEDONIA (*capital*, PELLA), a military state, compact in form, and with its finances in good order. Greece was in general dependent on it, and its towns received Macedonian garrisons; especially the three important fortresses of Demetrias, in Magnesia, Chalcis, in Eubœa, and Corinth, on the Isthmus, "*the three fetters of the Hellenes.*" But the strength of the state lay, above all, in its original domain, the province of Macedonia.

In no country were the changes produced by Alexander more striking than here. Before his and his father's time, Macedonia was a kingdom of the *old Homeric type*. Even PHILIP never placed his effigy on his coins, nor called himself king. But the **Antigonic** princes wore the diadem, were surrounded by a court, and were the centre of a bureaucratic and military system. They regarded their subjects as taxable property, and as the material for the manufacture of armies. And the people themselves were sadly fallen and diminished. For all the youth and energy of the country flowed in a never-ceasing stream toward the East, which led to the most disastrous results.

About 280 B.C. a large body of GAULS poured through the passes of the Balkan, and devastated the country as far as **Delphi**. There the flood had spent its fury and ebbed. As it retired, it left Macedonia and Greece exhausted and depopulated, but not demoralized. Gradually the country recovered, and about 200 B.C. **Macedonia** had become once more a great power.

EGYPT, or, THE EMPIRE OF THE PTOLEMIES (*capital, ALEXANDRIA*), formed a consolidated and united state, in which the intelligent statecraft of the first Ptolemies, skilfully availing itself of ancient, national, and religious precedent, had established an absolute government, at the head of which stood the **King**. His word was law throughout the length and breadth of the land. Around him was a military court with innumerable grades of honor and distinction.

All the higher honors were in the hands of Macedonians and Greeks, the leaders of the hired troops, the physical force of the Egyptian realm. The native Egyptians seem to have accepted calmly a position of inferiority. They had long been unused to independence, and the respect paid to their laws and religion by their new masters made them disposed cheerfully to submit to their supremacy and protection.

The commerce, the wealth, and the population of Egypt advanced at a wonderful pace under this wise administration, so that the armies, the ships, the riches, the literary and artistic treasures of Egypt became the wonder of the world.

ASIA, or, THE EMPIRE OF THE SE-

LEUCIDÆ (*capital, ANTIOCHIA, on the Orontes*), was nothing but Persia superficially remodelled and Hellenized; a rather loose aggregate of states in various degrees of dependence of insubordinate satrapies, and of half-free Greek cities.

In most respects this vast and ill-compacted empire formed a marked contrast to Egypt. Seleucus and his successors never succeeded, like the Ptolemies, in conciliating the national and religious prejudices of the races over which they ruled.

The means by which they so long retained their sway in the midst of hostile populations were the following:

The Seleucidæ were the heirs of the enormous treasures of gold and silver, the hoarded results of Alexander's exactions. These treasures drew over into Asia a constant stream of soldiers of fortune, who were unscrupulous indeed, but made, under good generals, fair soldiers; and the Seleucidæ knew how to attach them to their service.

But the main source of the Greek power throughout Asia was in the Greek cities, founded everywhere in extraordinary numbers by Alexander and his successors.

A series of small independent states, stretching from the southern end of the **Caspian Sea** to the **Hellespont**, filled the whole of northern **Asia Minor**. The most characteristic among them was **Atropatene**, the true asylum of ancient Persian manners, over which the expedition of Alexander had swept without leaving a trace.

After the Gauls had vacated Macedonia, three of their tribes had crossed over at **Byzantium** into Asia, and founded (278 B.C.) the Gallo-Greek kingdom of **Galatia**, in the heart of Phrygia. They neither abandoned their native language nor manners, neither their constitution nor their trade as freebooters.

In consequence of bold and successful measures of opposition to these Gallic hordes **AT TALUS**, a wealthy citizen of **Pergamus**, received the royal title from his native city and bequeathed it to his posterity. This new court was in miniature what that of **Alexandria** was on a grand scale. Both in political skill and in love of letters, the kings of Pergamon were not inferior to the Ptolemies. All the princes of this dynasty were literary.



THE HISTORY OF ROME.

UNTIL THE BURNING OF ROME BY THE CELTS.

SOURCES OF ROMAN HISTORY.

WHAT is called the early history of Rome is, to a great extent, fabulous. So much is certain, that more than three hundred and sixty years after the alleged foundation of Rome the public records were destroyed by the Celts, and that the oldest annals of the commonwealth were compiled more than a century and a half after the destruction of the records.

These oldest Roman annalists were Fabius Pictor and Cincius Alimentus. They wrote not in Latin, but in Greek, evidently because the Latin language in their time seemed not sufficiently cultivated for literary composition and because they had before their eyes as models the great historians of Greece. But contemporaneously with them two poets, Nævius and Ennius, moulded the same materials into Latin epic poems. The first who applied the Latin language to historical composition in prose was Marcus Porcius Cato.

He wrote the history of his own time (second century B.C.), but prefixed several chapters on the history of the earlier ages, including therein accounts of the origin of other Italian cities besides Rome, whence the title of the book "*Origines*" was derived.

What were the sources from which these historians derived the knowledge of events which had happened centuries before their birth?

First and foremost, they were thrown back upon ordinary oral tradition. The familiarity with the deeds of their ancestors was greatly facilitated in Rome by the fixity of the Roman families, by the composition of the senate, and by the organization of the priestly bodies.

But the head of the pontifical corporation (the *Pontifex Maximus*) also wrote down every year the most remarkable events and published them on wooden tablets, which were preserved in the *Regia*, the official dwelling of the chief-pontiff. Thus a meagre, but at any rate a trustworthy abstract of the most striking

events must have been compiled, whence annalists could draw their information.

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE.

Four groups of nations are to be regarded as having been original dwellers in Italy before the Greeks came to the peninsula by sea in the South and the Celts by land in the North.

I. On the Adriatic coast we find various Illyrian tribes.

II. On the northwestern coast Ligurian tribes.

III. The Etruscans or Ras had their first abode in Italy in the valley of the Po, whence they were driven by Celts to the land which still bears their name. Another Tuscan league existed in Campania.

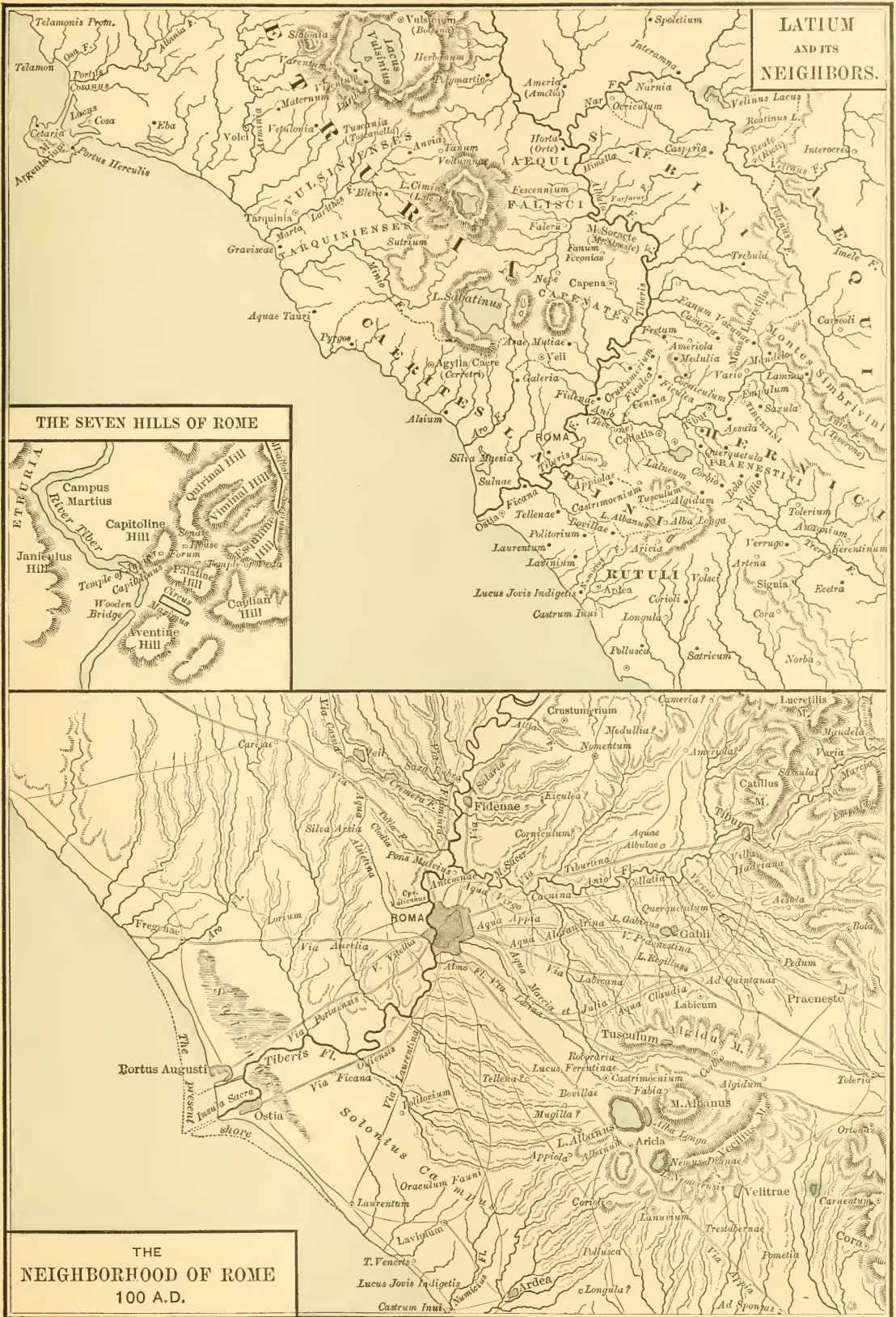
IV. The remaining part of Italy was occupied by a number of tribes closely connected with one another in language and customs. These were the Umbri, Sabini, and Latini. The nations of this group are clearly to be regarded as having been the last to come into the peninsula by land, before the dawn of history. Their movement southward did not come to an end until about 400 B.C., at the time of the conquest of Campania, Lucania, and Bruttium by the Samnites.

Its further development is to be seen in the political annexation and linguistic assimilation, first of the whole of Italy, then of Western and Central Europe, by one of its tribes, which was originally confined to very narrow borders, the Latins.

Thirty cantons formed the Latin league, the political centre of which was the town of Alba.

THE BEGINNINGS OF ROME.

Situation.—In the northwestern part of Latium, about fourteen miles up from the mouth of the river Tiber, arose, on the Palatine



hill, at a wholly unknown time and under wholly unknown circumstances, ROME. It was a Latin settlement, and the language of Rome has retained forever after the name of Latin, testifying thereby the original identity of race.

When the Sabines invaded Latium they made permanent settlements between the Tiber and Anio, and also occupied the Capitoline and Quirinal hills in the immediate vicinity of Palatine Rome.

At first harassing each other in deadly strife, they soon saw that it would be more advantageous to live in peace and friendship. Accordingly the Latins and Sabines made an international alliance, which proved to be the condition of the future greatness of Rome. This alliance soon developed into a federal state. The free will and independence of the allies was bound up in the national will, declared by the decisions of a common senate and a popular assembly.

The earliest boundary of this community were in the landward direction, about five miles distant from the town, and it was only toward the coast that they extended as far as the mouth of the Tiber.

Oldest Constitution.—The head of this miniature state was a king, elected for life, and combining the functions of high priest with those of judge and military leader, but these oldest kings of Rome were pre-eminently priests. How long this kind of priest-kingship lasted is impossible to tell. It was followed by a military monarchy, founded by Etruscan conquerors, which abolished the old sacerdotal constitution, raised the military and civil power over that of the priestly order, consolidated and strengthened the state, and thus intensified the preponderance of Rome over the tribes which surrounded her. It seems to have been at the expense of these neighbors that the earliest extensions of the Roman territory took place.

The Latin communities on the Upper Tiber and between the Tiber and Arno appear to have forfeited their independence in very early times.

By these conquests the Roman territory was probably extended to about one hundred and ninety square miles. Another very early achievement of the Roman arms was the conquest and destruction of Alba, the ancient sacred metropolis of Latium. Rome gained, in consequence of that event, the right to preside at the Latin festival—a right which was the basis of the hegemony of Rome over the whole Latin confederacy.

Patricians and Plebeians.—The Roman people were not a homogeneous mass. The

patricians formed the ruling body. They were *the citizens*. By the side of them there existed, from the earliest times, a subordinate class called plebeians, enjoying, indeed, the name of Roman citizens, and entitled to the protection of life and property, but still excluded from any share in the government.

They formed a distinct body, a subject population bound to bear the burdens of the state without sharing in its government. They had an organization of their own, the "*assembly of the tribes*" (COMITIA TRIBUTA), in which were chosen plebeian magistrates (*tribunes and ædiles*) to regulate their affairs. A certain number of the plebeians were called clients (*listeners*), and were attached as hereditary dependents to certain patrician families. Each patrician had a number, of whom he was called the *patron*, and of whom he was the legal protector, while in return they paid him fixed dues and services.

The number of these plebeians was continually augmented by three causes:

1st, By the Latins, who, by the provisions of the Latin League, had the right of settling at Rome.

2d, By the conquest of the neighboring towns, the greater part of whose population was transferred to Rome.

3d, The burdens of the war fell exclusively on the patricians, while the plebeians shared in the result of the victories without having to pay for it with their blood.

Servius Tullius.—The first step toward the amalgamation of these two parts of the Roman people was made by the constitution which bears the name of Servius Tullius, which, instead of imposing the duty of military service on the citizens as such, laid it upon the possessors of land, whether they were citizens or plebeians.

Service in the army was changed from a personal burden into a burden of property. The whole body of freeholders, who from their seventeenth to their sixtieth year were under obligation of military service, were divided, according to the size of their farms, into five summonings (*classes*). The sixth class contained those who owned no property whatever (*proletarii*). They had to supply workmen and musicians for the army as well as a number of substitutes, who marched with the army unarmed, and when vacancies occurred took their places in the ranks, equipped with the armor of the sick or the fallen. These six classes formed the infantry. For the cavalry they chose the most opulent and considerable proprietors. It consisted of 1,800 horse or 18 centuriæ (100 men forming a centuria). Hence the arrangement was as follows:

I. Cavalry, divided into 18 centuriæ.

- 1st class containing 80 centuriæ.
- 2d class containing 20 centuriæ.
- 3d class containing 20 centuriæ.
- 4th class containing 20 centuriæ.
- 5th class containing 28 centuriæ.

II. Infantry divided into 168 centuriæ . . .

III. Camp followers, divided into 7 centuriæ.

Total, 193 centuriæ or companies.

As the population increased the number of the centuriæ was not augmented, but the number of persons in each centuria was increased. Each centuria had one voice in the assembled levy of the militia, which was called the *comitia centuriata* (*the meeting of the companies*). One right was granted to this assembly, that of *assenting to the declaration of an aggressive war*. Thus was developed by the Etruscan kings, out of the old dual community, that military organization which was equal to the task of making Rome the mistress of Italy and of the world. It was also the first step toward the equalization of patricians and plebeians.

THE POLITICAL REVOLUTION OF 510 B.C.

The Expulsion of the Kings.—The Servian constitution had greatly curtailed the influence of the patricians, who became more and more dissatisfied with the Etruscan kings. The plebeians, on the other hand, were well disposed toward them, because they were their natural protectors. But at length the political opposition of the patricians, backed by national animosity throughout the whole of Latium, triumphed. In all the Latin towns the old Latin population rose against the Etruscan conquerors. They were expelled from Rome, which they had made the head of Latium. In regaining their independence the Romans lost their proud position in Latium, and the patricians were even compelled to make concessions to the hated plebeians in order to reconcile them to the expulsion of the Etruscan kings. How long these Etruscans had ruled over Rome and Latium we have no means of judging. It seems, however, not to have continued long enough to change the national character or to seriously affect the language.

The New Magistracies.—In the place of the expelled Etruscan king two annual rulers, chosen from among the patricians, now were placed at the head of the Roman community. The one *life-king* was replaced by two

year-kings, who called themselves generals (*prætors*), or judges (*iudices*), or simply colleagues (*consules*). The supreme power was not intrusted to the two magistrates conjointly, but each consul possessed and exercised it for himself as fully as it had been possessed and exercised by the king. They received the insignia of the royal office and the year was henceforth (until 541 A.D.) named after them.

But whenever it was found that the division of authority endangered the national independence, in great emergencies of foreign or domestic conflicts, they had recourse to a temporary restoration of undivided authority by appointing a "*master of the people*" (*MAGISTER POPULI*), or "*commander*" (*dictator*). As soon as he was nominated all the other magistrates became legally powerless and entirely subject to his authority.

To him as to the king was assigned a "*master of the horse*" (*MAGISTER EQUITUM*). The intention was that the dictator's authority should be distinguished from that of the king only by its limitation in point of time, the maximum duration of his office being six months.

Comitia Centuriata.—In order to reconcile the plebeians with this great increase of importance of the patricians, from whose ranks alone all magistrates were taken, all the political prerogatives of the old *patrician assembly* (*COMITIA CURIATA*) were now transferred to the "*assembly of the militia*" (*THE COMITIA CENTURIATA*), which more and more came to be regarded as the assembly of the sovereign people. With it rested—

I. THE DECISION ON APPEALS IN CRIMINAL CASES.

II. THE NOMINATION OF MAGISTRATES.

III. THE ADOPTION OR REJECTION OF LAWS.

The Senate.—The official designation of the Roman Commonwealth created by the revolution of 510 B.C. was S.P.Q.R. (*Senatus Populusque Romanus*). The precedence given in this title to the Senate shows that it was indeed the soul of that mighty body. It contained the heads of the patricians' households, the fathers (*patres*). But only a limited number (originally 300) of the fathers had a seat for life in the Senate; hence the Senators were addressed *patres conscripti* (*fathers whose names were entered*) (*CONSCRIPTI*) on the senatorial lists). This Senate had neither executive, nor legislative, nor judicial power. It was merely a consultative body of men picked from the mass of the patricians and accustomed to meet periodically for the discussion of public affairs. It was free to give advice to the magistrates, when asked for it, but unable either to give advice unasked or to enforce its acceptance.

THE SOCIAL REVOLUTION OF 493 B.C.

The Plebeian Revolt.—The revolution which overthrew the Etruscan dominion over Latium, led, in Rome, to a restoration of the rule of the patricians. The plebeians were so far from being benefited by it that they had to rise in open rebellion to obtain, not equality with the patricians; not a share in the government; but simple protection from arbitrary and illegal treatment.

A three-fold blow had been struck at the plebeians.

I. They were deprived of the use of the common pasture.

II. The distributions of land were entirely stopped.

III. They were continually liable to be called out for military service.

When in 495 B.C. the levy was called forth for a dangerous war, the plebeians refused to obey the command unless their grievances were redressed. This was solemnly promised. They took their places in the ranks and helped to secure the victory. But when peace had been made the promises were forgotten. The plebeians endured what could not be changed.

But when, in the following year, the war was renewed, the consul's word availed no longer. It was not till Manius Valerius was nominated dictator that the plebeians, from their confidence in him, were induced to march against the enemy. The victory was again with the Romans; but when, after the campaign, the dictator would carry out his promises, he was prevented by the patricians. The army still stood in its array before the gates of the city. When the conduct of the patricians became known it abandoned its general and its encampment and marched into the district of Crustumerium, between the Tiber and the Anio.

Here they occupied a hill, and threatened to establish in this, the most fertile part of the Roman territory, a new plebeian city. The patricians, unable to reduce them by force, and seeing that without the plebeians (the rank and file of the army) they were utterly helpless, gave way; the dictator negotiated an agreement—which was a solemn acknowledgment on the part of the patricians that the old plebeian magistrates (the tribunes and ædiles) should, under the guarantee of a sacred law (*LEX SACRATA*) have authority to control the official acts, even of the patrician magistrates.

The Tribune.—Every man was liable to be called out for military service, and it is clear that great injustice might be practised by the consuls, if they disregarded the spe-

cial claims of exemption which individual citizens might have. In such cases the tribunes would interfere, and their interference might amount to an inhibition of the whole conscription, so that they might actually veto a war, if they were so minded. This power of the tribunes was called the "*right of protection*" (*JUS AUXILII*). They could claim, and did claim, no more. Their sole business was to protect plebeians from unjust treatment at the hands of patricians. The number of the tribunes had been originally two, then (after 471) five, and, finally (after 457), ten.

About this time (493 B.C.) the "*assembly of the militia*" (*COMITIA CENTURIATA*) ceased to be the basis on which the army was formed, the conscription being made, not according to classes, but according to tribes (*wards and districts*) into which the town and territory were divided. Each tribe consisted of the people settled within its boundaries, without regard either to descent or to property, and formed a military district. During the fifth century B.C. there were twenty-one tribes (after 241 B.C. they numbered thirty-five). On them had been based, from time immemorial, a plebeian assembly, which chose plebeian magistrates (tribuni) called the "*assembly of the tribes*" (*COMITIA TRIBUTA*).

Whereas the *COMITIA CENTURIATA* had been an aristocratic organization, from which the plebeians were excluded, and the *COMITIA CENTURIATA* had given a preponderance to wealth, the *COMITIA TRIBUTA* were purely democratic. Each tribe had one vote, which was decided by the majority of voters in the tribe. By the treaty on the Sacred Mount the "*assembly of the tribes*" was first recognized by the patricians as invested with political rights, for the patricians bound themselves to treat the plebeian magistrates (tribuni) elected in those "*assembly of the tribes*" as persons invested with public authority. If the *COMITIA CENTURIATA* continued to elect the consuls, the *COMITIA TRIBUTA* continued to elect their tribunes, whose authority was now acknowledged equally by patricians and plebeians. While the *COMITIA CENTURIATA* remained stationary, the *COMITIA TRIBUTA* continually extended their sphere of action, and under the direction of the *tribunes*, became the moving power in the commonwealth to which all progress in constitutional and civil law was chiefly due.

The League of the Three Nations.—The same year (493 B.C.) which witnessed the acknowledgment of the old plebeian magistrates by the patricians is marked by the conclusion of a treaty between Rome and Latium, in which both appear as independent powers. It was dictated by the common interests of both.

The Latin towns formed, for Rome, a line of fortifications, on the south and east, against Volsci and Æqui, and Rome defended for Latium the line of the Tiber against the Etruscans and Sabines, on the western and northern sides. After 486 the Hernici, who lived farther eastward, between the Volsci and Æqui, joined the league on equal terms. This league enabled its members not only to maintain, but also to extend on all sides, their power. Their conquests were at the expense of the Sabines, Æqui, and Volscians. The Sabines were soon conquered, but the struggle with the Æqui and Volscians lasted more than a century.

The league had also to watch their old enemy, the Etruscans. Twelve miles to the north of Rome was the powerful Etruscan city of Veii. A furious war raged between the rivals from 483-474 B.C., at the end of which Rome only recovered its ground. After an armistice of four hundred months, the war was renewed (445 B.C.), and the Romans recovered Fidenæ. Another armistice of two hundred months was made in 425, on the expiration of which Rome resolved to end this war by the conquest of Veii. It succumbed in 396 B.C. to the persevering and heroic energy of Marcus Furius Camillus. Veii was destroyed. The statement that the two bulwarks of the Etruscan nation, Melpum and Veii, yielded on the same day, the former to the Celts, the latter to the Romans, may be merely a melancholy legend, but it, at any rate, involves a deep historical truth. The double assault, on the north and on the south, and the fall of the two frontier strongholds, were the beginning of the end of the great Etruscan nation.

THE LEGAL REVOLUTION OF 450 B.C.

The Decemvirs.—The want of any written code of laws for the plebeians induced the tribune, Caius Terentilius Arsa, to propose a commission to prepare such a code. Ten years elapsed ere this proposal was carried into effect. At length (453 B.C.), the preparation of a legal code was resolved upon. It was agreed that the existing forms of government should be suspended, and that in the place of the *patrician consuls* and the *plebeian tribunes*, ten men (DECEMVIRI) should be elected. These decemvirs, after having been bound not to infringe the sworn liberties of the commons, were clothed for one year with irresponsible authority. They made a series of legal provisions, divided into ten sections, which, after they had received the assent of the nation, were engraved on ten tables of brass, and

affixed in the forum to the rostra in front of the senate-house. But as a supplement appeared necessary, decemvirs were again nominated in 450. It seems that these second decemvirs were opposed to the policy of the extreme patrician party, and that they really intended to carry out the equalization of the laws. In this endeavor they were thwarted by the Senate, which compelled them to resign before the last two tables were sanctioned. The Senate then embodied in the last two tables those old prohibitions of inter-marriage between patricians and plebeians which were so offensive to the latter, and tried to restore the old consular government without the tribuneship of the people. Hereupon the plebeians had recourse to a second secession, and did not return to the city until the sacred laws and the tribuneship had been restored. Thus originated the Law of the XII Tables.

The Equalization of the Two Orders.—The old constitution of 454 B.C. was now restored again, and with it all the patrician privileges, though the time was drawing nigh when they were destined to fall one after another.

The two fundamental principles of the patricians were :

1. The invalidity of marriage between patricians and plebeians.
2. The incapacity of plebeians to hold public offices.

Both were annulled about 444 B.C. The admittance of the plebeians to the higher public offices continued to be refused in name, but was conceded to them in reality, although in a singular form.

Every year (from 444-367 B.C.) a law had to be passed declaring whether consuls should be elected for the succeeding year or not. If no consuls were to be elected, their place was filled by three *military tribunes with consular powers* and *consular duration of office*. One of the three was intended to discharge the duties of chief judge, for which afterward a prætor was elected. The patricians reserved to themselves the right of filling this office with one of their own number. The other two were to be elected indiscriminately from patricians and plebeians.

But now the exclusive possession of the supreme magistracy could no longer be defended ; it seemed advisable to divest it of its financial importance, and by means of patrician censors (*appraisers*) and quæstors (*paymasters*) to keep at least the budget and the state chest under the exclusive control of the patricians. They succeeded with the censorship, but the quæstorship was soon thrown open to the plebeians (421 B.C.).

THE SAMNITES.

Soon after (400, 399, and 396 B.C.), they carried the election of several plebeian military tribunes, and thus for the first time realized the privilege which they had won about half a century before. They never again lost the ground thus gained, and in less than ten years more (388 B.C.) they reached at last the long desired end of political equality, by the Licinian laws, which gave them a share in the consulship. However, before this great constitutional change took place, Rome passed through a terrible danger which threatened it with total dissolution.

THE BURNING OF ROME.

The fall of Melpum had given the Celts the whole left bank of the Po, and Celtic swarms rapidly overflowed Northern Italy and besieged Clusium. So humbled were the Etruscans that they invoked help from their bitter enemies, the Romans. The Romans declined to send assistance, but despatched envoys, who sought to impose upon the Celts by

haughty language. When this failed, they thought they might with impunity violate the law of nations in dealing with barbarians. They fought in the rank of the Clusines, and a Gallic officer was stabbed by a Roman envoy. Redress being refused, the Celts broke up the siege of Clusium and marched on Rome. At the Allia (July 18th, 390 B.C.), they met the Roman army, which was not only totally defeated, but the greater portion was carried to the right bank of the Tiber. The capital was thus left to the mercy of the invaders, who marched through the open gates into Rome. After murdering all they met with, they burned the city (390 B.C.). The Celts remained for seven months beneath the rock of the capitol, when they received information as to the Veneti having invaded their recently acquired territory on the Po, and were thus induced to accept the ransom money that was offered to secure their retreat. The city soon arose out of its ruins, and Rome stood in her old commanding position. (Plate XIII. b.)

FROM THE REBUILDING OF ROME TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

THE CONSOLIDATION OF CENTRAL ITALY.

The Samnites.—One result of the Celtic invasions had been the extension of the Samnite league, which was for the mountain tribes what the Latin league was for the plain. One Samnite horde after the other fell upon the Greek colonies in Lucania and Campania, which, weakened as they had been by the Celtic attack, were unable to resist the barbarians. But Samnium lacked a leading community, and consequently there was no policy of conquest. Every Samnite horde which had sought and found new settlements pursued a path of its own. They filled a large space, while yet they showed no disposition to make it thoroughly their own. Instead of Samnizing the Hellenes, they became Hellenized. The old mountain home of the Samnites alone remained unaffected by these innovations, which powerfully contributed to loosen still more the bond of national unity, which from the first was loose. It was this variance between the Samnites of the plain and the Samnites of the mountains that led the Romans over the Liris and became the immediate cause of the Samnite wars.

Samnite Wars.—It was nothing else but a gigantic struggle, lasting more than fifty years,

between the mountain and the plain. The question at issue was, whether Italy should become united and civilized, or would be doomed to remain a loose collection of shepherd tribes. The first Samnite war was soon over (343-341 B.C.), and had not much result; both sides were willing to make peace, especially Rome, for she was just then afraid of her allies, the Latins, who had asked in vain to be admitted to the full rights of Roman citizens. The struggle lasted nearly three years (340-338 B.C.), and ended with the dissolution of the Latin league. Instead of the one treaty between Rome on the one hand and the Latin confederacy on the other, perpetual alliances were entered into between Rome and the several confederate towns. The Latin league was transformed into a Latin state. Twelve years after the pacification of Latium broke out the second or great Samnite war (326-304 B.C.). It was a general uprising of the Italian nations against consolidated Latium, Etruscans and Celts joining the Samnites. The fall of the chief stronghold of Samnium (Bovianum, 305 B.C.) terminated the twenty-two years' war. The victory of Rome was complete, and she turned it to full account.

The region which separated Samnium from Etruria was penetrated by two military roads,



both of which were secured by new fortresses. The northern road covered the line of the Tiber, the southern ran along the Fucine lake. The Appian road secured Apulia and Campania.

These roads served to connect together a series of road-fortresses (Latin colonies). By their means Samnium would be in a few years entirely surrounded, isolated from the rest of Italy, and completely in the grasp of Rome. Such a peace was more ruinous than the most destructive war. With the help of Celts and Etruscans, Samnium, five years after the peace, renewed the struggle (third Samnite War, 299–290 B.C.), which culminated in the decisive Roman victory of Sentinum (295 B.C.). Five years afterward Samnium begged for peace, and became a subject-ally of Rome. Rome was now mistress of Central Italy. She had subdued the Samnites and Etruscans, and had driven back the Gauls, and there were only some Greek cities in the south to stand against her.

Pyrrhus.—Among them was wealthy Tarentum, old treaties with which prohibited Roman ships-of-war from passing the promontory of Lacinium. A Roman war fleet on its way to the Umbrian coast, overtaken by storms, sought refuge in the harbor of Tarentum. The Tarentines attacked the vessels, capturing five. A Roman embassy which came to demand reparation being grossly insulted, a Roman army advanced into the Tarentine territory. The Tarentines called to their assistance Pyrrhus, of Epirus, the renowned leader of mercenaries, who landed (280 B.C.) with 25,000 troops and twenty elephants. For the first time the Roman militia had to fight with regular soldiers—the dreaded Macedonian phalanx. The Romans were conquered by tactics, but fled only when Pyrrhus launched his elephants (the Lucanian oxen) upon their weakened ranks (battle of Heraclea, 280 B.C.). He conquered the Romans again at Asculum in Apulia (279 B.C.), but was finally completely defeated at Beneventum (275 B.C.). Rome had expelled the Hellenic foreigners from Italian soil.

United Italy.—It is more than probable that the repelling of the Celtic and Hellenic invasions played an important part as a reason for centralizing the military resources of Italy in the hands of the Romans. When they took the lead in the great national struggle, and compelled the Etruscans, Latins, Sabellians, Apulians, and Hellenes alike to fight under their standards, that unity obtained firm consolidation and recognition in state law; and the name Italy, which originally pertained only to the modern Calabria, was gradually

transferred to the whole of the peninsula south of the Appennines. The earliest boundaries of this great armed confederacy, led by Rome, reached, on the western coast, as far as the mouth of the Arnus, on the east, as far as the Æsis.

The new Italy had thus become a political unity; it was also in the course of becoming a national unity. Already the ruling Latin nationality had assimilated to itself the Sabines and the Volscians, and had scattered isolated Latin communities (the Latin colonies or road-fortresses) over all Italy. The great southern highway, which acquired, in the fortress of Beneventum, a new station, intermediate between Capua and Venusia, was continued as far as the seaports of Tarentum and Brundisium, and firmly established the dominion of Rome in the interior of Lower Italy.

These germs were merely developed when, subsequently, the Latin language became the mother-tongue of everyone entitled to Roman citizenship.

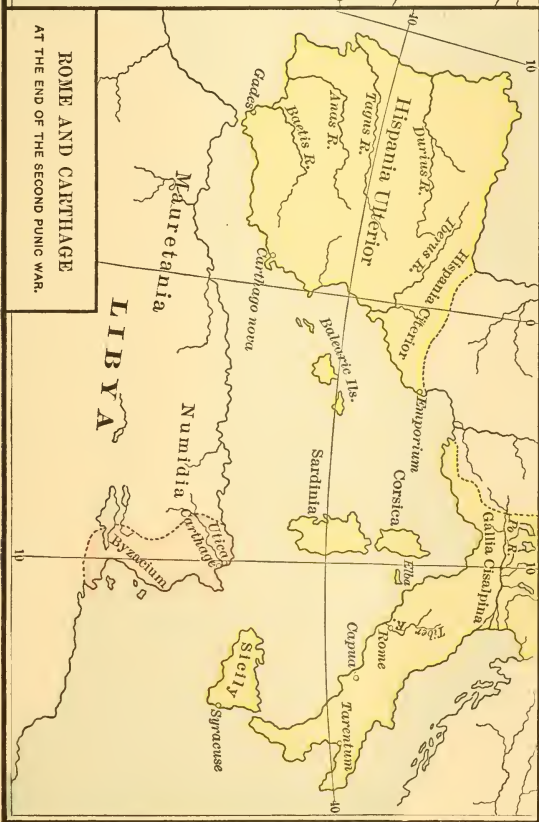
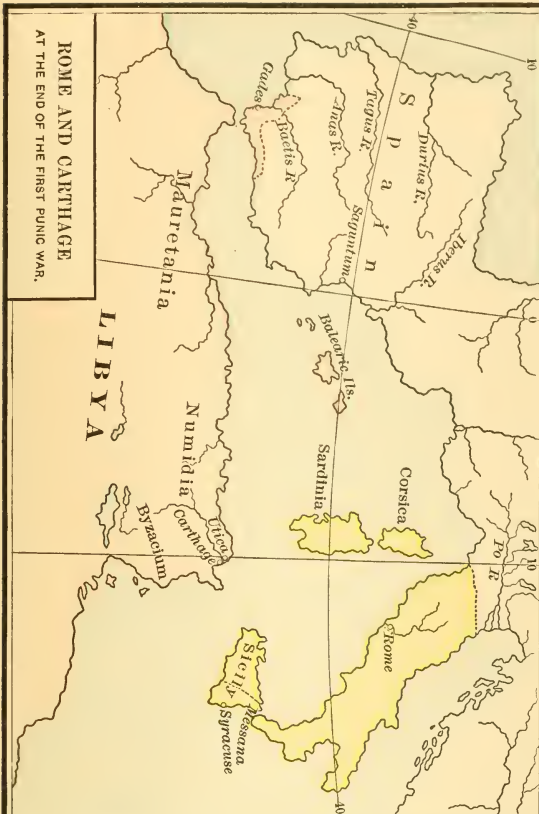
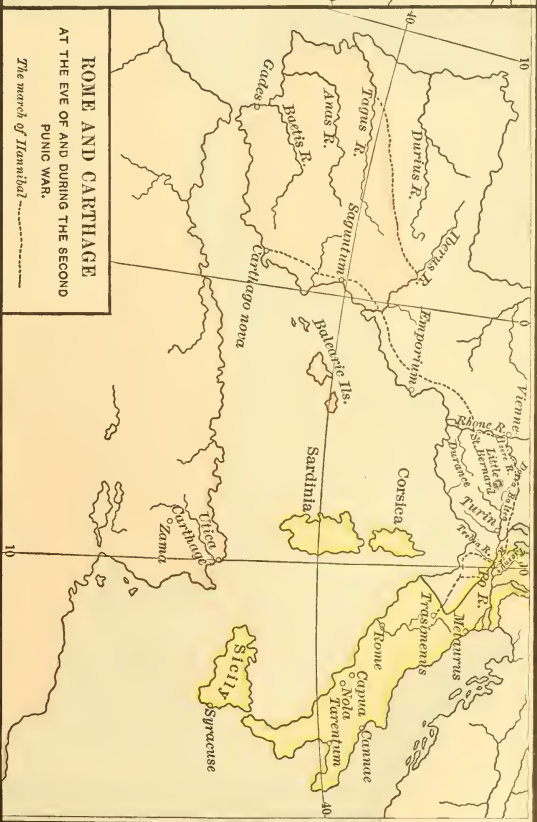
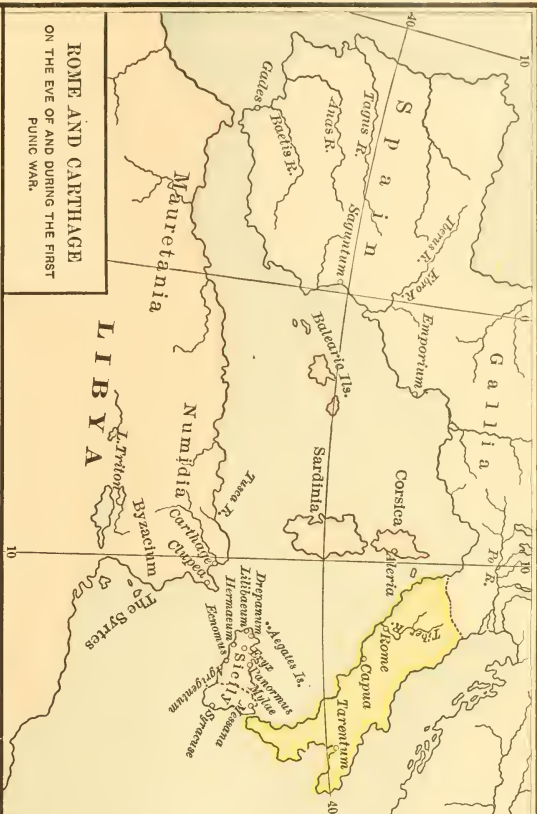
The singular cohesion which that confederation subsequently exhibited under the severest shocks stamped their great work with the seal of success.

THE FIRST AND SECOND PUNIC WARS.

Cause.—The circumstances of the struggle with Pyrrhus and the Southern Italians had forced Rome to become to some extent a maritime power. As mistress of Italy, she had to protect the exposed Italian coasts.

Accordingly, a fleet began to be formed as early as 338 B.C., which received constant additions. But this new tendency on the part of Rome could not fail to provoke the jealousy of the chief maritime power of the Western Mediterranean, Carthage, whose policy it had always been to oppose the establishment of any naval rival in the waters which she regarded as her own. Thus unfriendly feelings, arising out of a consciousness of clashing interests, had for some time been growing up between Carthage and Rome, and nothing was needed but a decent pretext in order that the two lukewarm friends should become open and avowed enemies. The pretext was not long wanting. The Mamertines of Messina being threatened with destruction by the combined Carthaginians and Syracusans, applied for help to Rome, which at once invaded Sicily, and by an act of treachery made herself mistress of the disputed port. War with Carthage necessarily followed—a war for the possession of Sicily and for maritime supremacy in the Mediterranean.

Rome and Carthage.—The Carthaginian empire was, in its constitution, not unlike that



of Rome. Both had grown out of one city as their centre ; both ruled over allies of alien and of kindred race ; both had sent out numerous colonies, and through them had spread their nationality.

What, then, was the decisive force which, after the long trembling of the balance between Rome and Carthage, turned the scale ? It was the homogeneity of the material out of which the Roman state was constructed as compared with the varied elements which formed the Carthaginian.

The Romans were Latins, of the same blood as the Sabines and all the other races which formed the principal stock of the population of Italy. They were related in blood with the Greeks of Southern Italy, and they harmonized in a great measure with the Etruscans in their mode of life, in political thought and religious rites. But the Carthaginians were strangers in Africa, and they remained so to the end.

First Punic War.—The first Punic War lasted twenty-three years (264–241 B.C.). The long duration of the struggle showed that the combatants were not unequally matched. The strength of Rome lay in the warlike qualities of her citizens and subjects. Carthage was immeasurably superior in wealth. In this first war several great naval battles were fought (in 260 B.C., at Mylæ, in 256 B.C., at Ecnomos), and the decision was brought about by the victory of Catulus near the Ægæan Islands (241 B.C.).

The prize of the war, the beautiful island of Sicily, was gained by the victorious Romans. But this was not the only result. The superiority of Rome over Carthage was shown, and the "*war concerning Sicily*," great and important as it was, was only the prelude to the greater and more important struggle which established the dominion of Rome on the ruins of Carthage.

Second Punic War.—This greater struggle broke out twenty-three years after the first Punic War, and lasted seventeen years (218–201 B.C.). This second Punic War was not about a disputed boundary, about the possession of a province or some partial advantage ; it was a struggle for existence—for supremacy or destruction. It was to decide whether the Hellenic civilization of the West or the Semitic civilization of the East was to be established in Europe.

The plan of the Romans, to land their main army in Africa while a second army should engage the Carthaginian troops in Spain, was thwarted by Hannibal's daring overland expedition to Italy.

Crossing the Pyrenees with 50,000 foot,

9,000 horse, and thirty-seven elephants, Hannibal traversed Southern Gaul to the ford of the Rhone, near Orange. Then he went along the eastern side of the Rhone as far as Vienna, where he turned eastward to follow the course of the Isère. Crossing the Little St. Bernard, he descended into Italy along the course of the Dora Baltea. Unvarying success accompanied him from the first moment of his setting foot in Italy. He beat the Romans on the Ticinus and the Trebia in 218 B.C., and again at the Trasimene Lake in 217. His success rose higher and higher, until it culminated in the crowning victory at Cannæ (216 B.C.). But from this time the vigor of Hannibal's attack relaxed ; its force seemed spent. For Hannibal those difficulties began which are inseparable from a campaign in a foreign country, at a great distance from the native resources. He remained the terror of the Romans, but it became now more and more apparent that the resources of Rome were superior to those of her enemies. Gradually she rose from her fall.

Yielding on no point, she kept up vigorously the defensive against Hannibal, while she passed to the offensive in the other theatres of war, in Spain, Sicily, and finally in Africa ; and, having thoroughly reduced and weakened the strength of her adversary, she dealt a last and decisive blow against Hannibal himself at Zama (202 B.C.). Hannibal returned, after an absence of thirty-six years, to the city of his birth, not as a triumphant victor, but as a defeated general, to tell his fellow-citizens that not only the battle, but the war, was lost.

Results.—The immediate results of the second Punic War were the conversion of Spain into two Roman provinces ; the union of the hitherto dependent kingdom of Syracuse with the Roman province of Sicily ; the establishment of a Roman instead of the Carthaginian protectorate over the most important Numidian chiefs ; and lastly, the conversion of Carthage from a powerful commercial state into a defenceless mercantile town. In other words, it established the uncontested hegemony of Rome over the western region of the Mediterranean.

In the very year of the conclusion of peace with Carthage (201 B.C.) Rome recommenced hostilities in the plain of the Po, where the Gauls had, ever since the invasion of Hannibal, defied the Roman authority and maintained their independence. It was only by energetic and repeated efforts, and by skillfully fomenting the divisions among the tribes, that Rome once more established her dominion over this fair and fertile region, forcing the Gauls to become her reluctant subjects

(191 B.C.). This conquest was followed by a fresh arrangement of the territory. The line of the Po was taken as that which should bound the strictly Roman possessions. Beyond the Po, the Gallic communities, though allowed to retain their existence and their native governments, were especially required to allow no fresh immigrants to settle on the southern side of the Alpine chain.

THE CONQUEST OF THE EAST.

The Second Macedonian War.*—Next to Hannibal, Philip V. of Macedonia was the most important enemy of Rome. He committed the error of leaving Carthage, with which he was in alliance, without support, while he employed himself unprofitably with exciting among Ætolians and Athenians apprehension for their independence.

Philip was capable, of great exertion; cunning and vigilance were not wanting to him; and as a general he knew how to turn to good account the natural advantages of his country. But when the Romans came at the call of Pergamus, Rhodes, and Athens to the aid of Greek liberty (for such was their profession) it appeared at Cynoscephalæ (Plate XII.) that Philip knew not how to render his phalanx sufficiently manageable in an intersected country, and he was accordingly defeated by Titus Quinctius Flamininus (197 B.C.). He had to give up all possessions outside of Macedonia proper and to pay 1,000 talents in ten years (a talent equals \$1,250). During the celebration of the Isthmian games at Corinth, Flamininus proclaimed "*the freedom and independence of the Greek cantons.*"

War with Antiochus the Great.—As Macedonia had been conquered because the king, instead of waging war in alliance with Hannibal, had deferred it until the Romans were able to fall upon him, so Antiochus the Great was still more easily subdued because he had taken no part in the fate of Macedonia. From the ruins of old Troy to the Caucasus and the furthest confines of Media his will was law. Scarcely did he feel that the Parthians (since 255 B.C.) were no longer under his sway; the most beautiful, the most populous and flourishing provinces of the earth obeyed him. The first part of his reign had shone with glory, and he was by far the most powerful monarch of Asia. His activity only had diminished with increasing age. Antioch was one of the most voluptuous cities of the world

and there the great Antiochus slumbered under the laurels of his earlier years. About 194 B.C. Hannibal fled to his court, and succeeded in engaging Antiochus in a contest against the power of Rome.

But after war had been declared the counsels of Hannibal were not listened to with respect to the manner of conducting it. Crowned with garlands and by the sound of the flute and lyre, Antiochus, at the head of 400,000 men, crossed over into Thessaly. In silken and purple tents, before richly covered tables, he expected to triumph over those whom Hannibal and Philip had not been able to withstand.

Accordingly Manius Acilius Glabrio easily forced him, after he had defeated him in the battle of Thermopylæ (191 B.C.), to leave Greece and recross into Asia. Hither he was quickly followed by a Roman army, nominally under the command of the consul, L. Cornelius Scipio, but really under his brother, P. Cornelius Scipio Africanus.

In a great battle fought (190 B.C.) near Magnesia, on the Sipylus (Plate XII.), he suffered such a defeat that he was glad to purchase peace at the price of Asia Minor as far as Mount Taurus and by surrendering half his ships.

Third Macedonian War.—The plan of Philip V., of Macedonia, to revenge himself on the Romans, and to regain the old borders of Macedonia, was carried forward by his son and successor, Perseus, who pursued for a long time a system of measures, which was not devoid of policy, allying himself by inter-marriages with Prusias of Bithynia and Seleucus of Syria, and winning to his cause many princes of Thrace and Illyria. Even in Greece he had a considerable party, who thought his yoke would be more tolerable than that of Rome. But, as the danger of a rupture drew near, Perseus' good genius seemed to forsake him. He allowed Rome to crush his friends in Greece without reaching out a hand to come to their assistance; he allowed himself to be entrapped into making a truce during these months, thus enabling the Romans to complete their preparations at their leisure. In the fall of 171 B.C. both armies took the field, and at first it seemed that Perseus was destined to restore the ancient celebrity of the Macedonian arms. But in 168 B.C. the command of the Roman army was intrusted to Lucius Æmilius Paulus, who speedily overcame the apparently invincible obstacles which forests and mountains opposed to his progress. He forced Perseus to accept battle at Pydna (June 22). A sudden panic seized the king, who fled from the battle-field, and even abandoned his kingdom. He knew not how to die, but delivered himself a captive.

*The first Macedonian War (213-205 B.C.), instigated by Hannibal, was contemporaneous with the second Punic War. The Romans excited the Ætolians against Macedonia, to prevent its sending assistance to Hannibal.

THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.

Macedonia, divided up into four distinct states, was declared a free country under the protection of Rome, and in the one hundred and fifty-fifth year after the death of Alexander the Great, the last successor of his throne was led to Rome, following the triumphal car of the conqueror, where he died in most abject degradation.

Polybius dates from the battle of Pydna (168 B.C.) the full establishment of the universal empire of Rome.

The whole civilized world thenceforth recognized in the Roman senate the supreme tribunal, whose commissioners decided in the last resort between kings and nations.

THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.

But the greatest undertaking of this period was to remove out of the way the city which, however reduced, was still felt to be Rome's sole rival in the western world, and to assume the actual government of a new dependency in a new continent. This determination was in no way forced upon Rome by circumstances, but was decided upon as the course best calculated to advance Roman interests.

After the second Punic War Rome had taken under her protection Massinissa, King of Numidia.

The time from the peace of 201 B.C. to the breaking out of the war of extermination in 149 B.C. was filled with uninterrupted attacks of Massinissa against the integrity of the Carthaginian possessions. The fact that he was useful to the Romans in their wars in Spain, encouraged him in the belief that he could act as he chose. He continually advanced fresh claims upon the Carthaginian territory, and thus forced the unhappy city again and again to have recourse to the arbitration of Rome. The embassy which in 157 B.C. was despatched by the Senate to inquire into the affairs of Africa contained among its members the most uncompromising enemy of Carthage, Marcus Porcius Cato. The Carthaginians appealed to their just rights, guaranteed by treaty. Massinissa, on the contrary, declared his readiness to accept unconditionally the decision of the Romans, whatever it might be. The Carthaginian appeal to their rights appeared to Cato in the light of presumptuous defiance, and he determined to humble them to the dust. With astonishment and jealous envy he had observed the flourishing condition of their country. Though they had lost their foreign possessions, Carthage was still a town full of life and wealth. The port was thronged with shipping, and the streets and market-places were crowded with

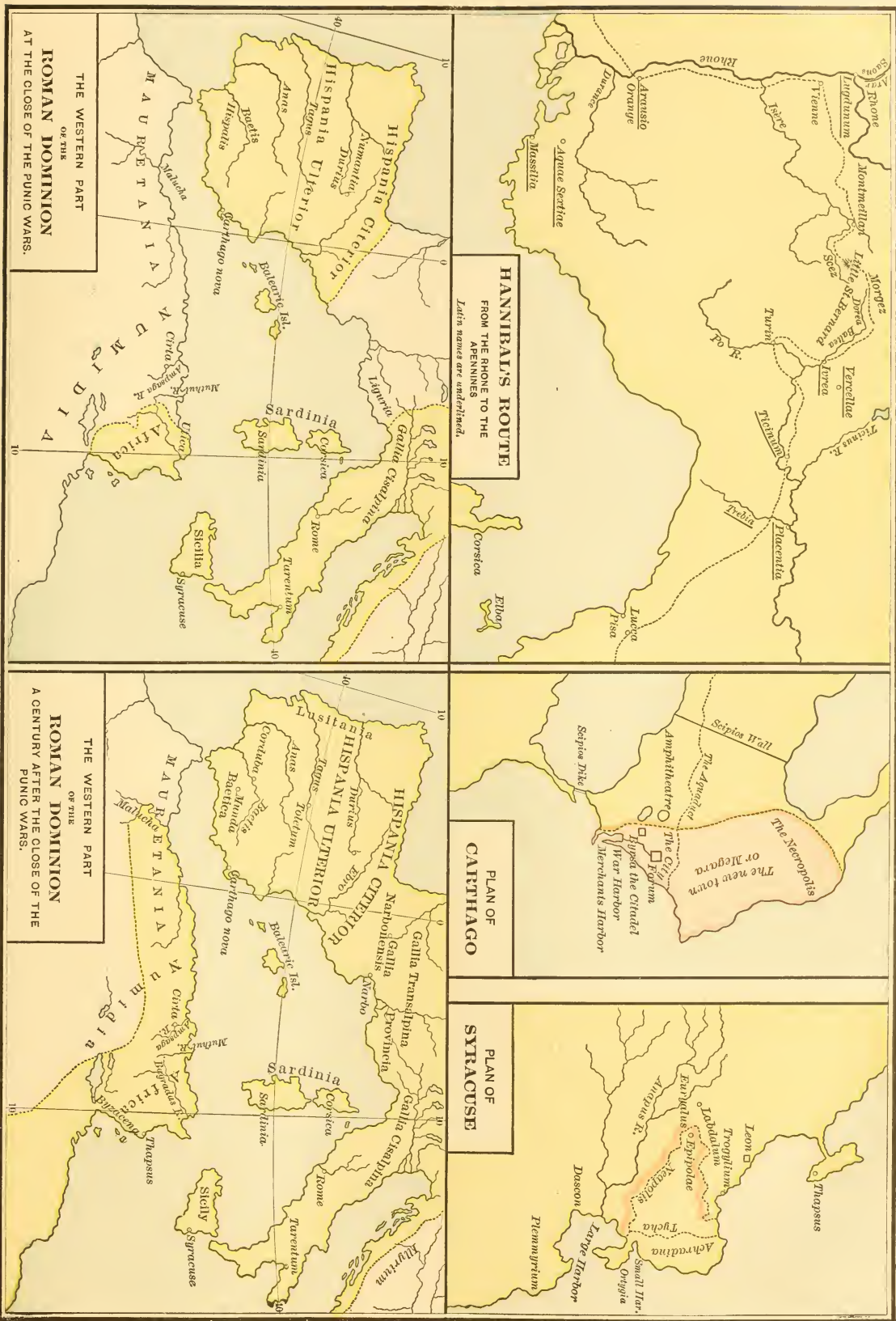
a busy multitude. The country was cultivated like a garden, and signs were everywhere visible of wealth and prosperity. He returned to Rome with the firm conviction that Carthage must be swept from the face of the earth, if Rome was to continue to exist. This policy found allies in the mighty influence of the Roman bankers and great capitalists, on whom, after the destruction of the rich moneyed and mercantile city, its inheritance would necessarily devolve. The desired occasion was soon found. The Carthaginians, having been unable to procure from Rome any reparation for several losses of territory, which they had sustained at the hands of Massinissa, finally took up arms themselves. The Roman Senate promptly declared this a breach of the peace. Two Roman armies landed at Utica, and the consuls required the disarming of the city. They humbly submitted. But when ordered to abandon their city and make a new settlement ten miles from the sea, the Carthaginians resolved on a desperate resistance. With the greatest sacrifices on the part of all the inhabitants, without regard to rank, age, or sex, new equipments were provided. Weapons were manufactured day and night. A new fleet was built in the inner harbor, and the first attack of the Romans was manfully repulsed.

When the third year of the war was drawing to a close Carthage was completely blockaded by land and sea, and Scipio could suspend his operations, leaving famine and pestilence to complete what he had begun. In the beginning of the spring of 146 B.C. the city was captured. But not until the seventh day after the Romans had entered the town, did the wretched remnant of the Carthaginian people surrender. Fifty thousand men, women, and children were carried off as prisoners. The conquered town was now given up to plunder and then consigned to the flames. The plough was drawn over the site of destroyed Carthage, and a solemn curse was pronounced against anyone who should ever undertake to build a new town on that spot.

The greater part of the Carthaginian territory was joined to Utica, which now became the capital of the Roman province of Africa. The Numidian Kingdom was not enlarged. It was left to internal disputes, which rendered it a safe neighbor.

THE ACHÆAN WAR.

After the conquest of Macedonia the Greeks perceived how much more formidable to their independence the Roman Republic was than the king they had labored to dethrone. The



THE NUMANTINE WAR—THE GRACCHI.

Romans, after quelling an attempt made by a certain Andriscus, who gave himself out as Philippos, brother of Perseus, made Macedonia a Roman province, and sought to acquire secure possession of all the strong places in Greece. They made a formal demand of the Achæan confederacy to hand over to them all the fortresses which the Macedonian king had formerly possessed in the Peloponnesus. The embassy by which this proposal was sent was treated with insult by the populace of Corinth, and this aggression seemed to afford sufficient pretence for declaring war.

Achæa fought in vain, with the heroic spirit of ancient Greece. Critolaus, the head of the Achæan league, could only avoid a shameful submission by voluntary death. His successor, Diaus, summoned all who could bear arms together on the Isthmus, and armed 12,000 slaves. But he was completely defeated by the Consul Lucius Mummius at Leucopetra (146 B.C.), who occupied Corinth, adorned with the innumerable splendid works which the luxury and arts of the finest ages of Greece had produced. In the 955th year after the building of this city, in the same year as Carthage, Corinth was plundered and burned, all the adult males were massacred, and the women and children sold into slavery; many priceless art-treasures were destroyed. The Bœotian Thebes, and Chalcis, the great capital of Eubœa, the mother of so many colonies, were also committed to the flames.

THE NUMANTINE WAR.

After Carthage and Corinth had fallen, the Spaniard Viriathus, a great warrior, gave occupation to the arms of Rome during eight years; and in the same country a fortress, Numantia, which was defended by only 4,000 men, detained several Roman generals fourteen years before its walls. Viriathus was only subdued by treachery (139 B.C.). Even Scipio Æmilianus, the conqueror of Carthage, was unable to make himself master of Numantia; but when hunger had reduced its inhabitants to despair, and Scipio avoided giving them battle, they set fire to the town and destroyed themselves in the flames (133 B.C.). After the fall of Numantia all Spain, excepting the mountain tribes of the north (who maintained their freedom during another century), was reduced under Roman government.

THE CIVIL WARS.

The Gracchi.—While the Romans, with so much labor, obtained possession of barbarous Spain, Asia Minor fell easily into their power. The last Attalus, King of Pergamus, dying

without heirs, gave, by his last will, to Rome his whole kingdom.

It was immediately proposed by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, the tribune of the people, to divide the treasure of Attalus, and to provide a new law which might prevent any citizen from possessing more than 1,000 jugera in land (a jugerum was a measure of surface, 240×120 ft.). The father of the tribune, whose name he bore, had been a magnificent aristocrat, and his mother was Cornelia, daughter of Hannibal's conqueror, Scipio Africanus Maior. Tiberius himself possessed all these qualities which would have rendered him a powerful citizen, without transgressing the laws. But he saw the great estates, worked by slaves, gradually crowding out the class of small proprietors; and the manhood and soil of Italy and the Roman army proportionately depreciated. To fill the vacuum he proposed to distribute to the poor, not only of Rome, but of the conquered Italian towns (*Municipia*), of the burgess-colonies (*Coloniæ Latinæ*), and of the free inhabitants of Italy (*Socii*), land taken from the rich members of those four component parts of the Roman State. The treasures of Attalus should be divided among the new land-owners in order that they might procure the necessary equipment.

His laws were naturally opposed by the rich land-owners, who had gained over one of the tribunes, Octavius, who, by his *veto* prevented the voting on the measure. Tiberius had him deposed by an unconstitutional popular decree. The laws were then passed, a commission was appointed (Tiberius, his brother Caius, and his father-in-law, Appius Claudius), and the work of resumption and distribution commenced. But it proved slow work, and Tiberius Gracchus tried, contrary to the constitution, to secure the election to the tribunate for the following year.

The election was forcibly stopped by the Senate, who, with Scipio Nasica at its head, took the lead in a violent attack upon him, and murdered him in open day, together with 300 of his partisans (133 B.C.). The work of the murdered man, however, went on. The Agrarian commission was renewed and allowed to continue its labors. But the arbitrary conduct of the new commissioners, Carbo and Flaccus, disgusted the more moderate people, and emboldened the Senate first to quash the commission and assign its duties to the consuls, and finally suspend proceedings under the Sempronian law altogether.

Caius Gracchus, more eloquent and possessed of greater abilities than his brother, after a lapse of ten years attempted to carry

out the plans of Tiberius on a larger scale. His object was to break down the oligarchy within and without. He aimed, on the one hand, to restore the power of the magistrates, which had become completely dependent on the Senate, to its original sovereign rights, and to reconvert the senatorial assembly from a governing into a deliberative board; and, on the other hand, to put an end to the aristocratic division of the state into the three classes of the *ruling burgesses, the Italian allies and the subjects*, by the gradual equalization of those distinctions which were incompatible with a government not oligarchical.

The Senate, being far more than his match in finesse and manœuvre, triumphed over him, though not without once more having recourse to violence, and staining the streets and prisons of Rome with the blood of above 3,000 of her citizens (121 B.C.).

The Jugurthine War.—The murder of Caius Gracchus gave the government to the aristocratic party, whose corruption was not only gradually increasing, but was becoming more generally known. The circumstances of the Jugurthine war brought it prominently into notice. After the destruction of Carthage, the greatest state in Africa was Numidia. In 118 B.C. its king, Micipsa, died, and left the kingdom to his two sons, Adherbal and Hiempsal, and to a nephew and adopted son, Jugurtha. The co-regents soon quarrelled, and Jugurtha determined to have the kingdom all to himself. So he murdered Hiempsal and expelled Adherbal, who sought protection in Rome. A commission of the Senate, which was bribed by Jugurtha, arranged a division of the kingdom entirely in Jugurtha's favor. The latter attacked Adherbal anew, defeated him, and besieged him in Cirta, his capital. Without heeding the intervention of the Roman Senate, Jugurtha captured Cirta and put to death Adherbal and the whole male population of the city, including many Italians. The tribune Caius Memmius now forces the Senate to declare war against Jugurtha, and the consul Calpurnius Bestia is sent against him. Jugurtha buys from him a peace, which the Senate, however, refuses to ratify. Ordered to Rome to explain his conduct, he obeys the summons, and soon gains partisans for himself by his money.

Memmius accuses, but another tribune, Baebius, protects him, and he is allowed to depart, notwithstanding that he has contrived at Rome the murder of his kinsman Massiva, on whom the Senate was about to confer his crown. When he left Rome, looking back upon it, he is said to have exclaimed: "*Oh city where everything is sold, you would sell your-*

self if you could only find a buyer." The Romans declared war against him (110 B.C.), but he bribed the generals, and for three years very little was done against him. In 108 B.C. the conduct of the war was intrusted to Quintus Metellus, who captured Cirta and most of the other cities, and forced Jugurtha to take refuge at the court of the Mauritanian king, Bocchus. Metellus would have finished the war, but in 106 B.C. the command was taken from him and given to his former lieutenant, Caius Marius, who was the son of a day-laborer, and had risen from the lowest rank to the highest command. This Marius conquered the united forces of Jugurtha and Bocchus, and induced the latter to deliver Jugurtha into his hands. Numidia was divided between Bocchus and Gauda the last living grandson of Massinissa. The captive king was led in triumph at Rome and died of hunger in prison (104 B.C.).

The Cimbric War.—About 113 B.C., when all the most accessible Alpine passes were in the possession of the Romans, and when Southern Gaul was a Roman province, hordes of barbarians appeared on the borders of Italy under the name of *Cimbri* (Chempho, *i.e.*, warriors). After laying waste the banks of the Danube and all Gaul they overcame (113) the consul Carbo, at Noreia, and soon after (109) Silanus in Gaul. They defeated Cassius (107), near the Garonne, with disgrace and dreadful slaughter; and Cæpio and Manlius with still greater loss at Arausio on the Rhone (107).

In this calamitous emergency no candidate appeared for the consulship, and the Senate was obliged to offer it to Caius Marius, the conqueror of Jugurtha. He was elected consul five times in succession (104-100).

The Cimbri meantime had crossed the Pyrenees and were wandering aimlessly about among the Spanish tribes. Forced by them to recross the Pyrenees they traversed Western Gaul. Driven back by the Belgians the Cimbri united with the Germanic tribes of the Teutones and Helvetians. These three nations resolved to enter Italy in two separate bands. The Cimbri with part of the Helvetians were to invade it from the north, while the Teutones with the rest of the Helvetians were to force their way into the peninsula through Southern Gaul. Marius marched to attack the Teutones and sent Catulus, his colleague, against the Cimbri, who were rushing down like torrents from the Rætian Alps.

Marius took his position at the junction of the Isère and the Rhone, where he covered the two military roads, which at that time alone connected Gaul and Italy (*the Pass of the Little St. Bernard and the Corniche road*). He ren-

dered the enemy more negligent by delay and by the same means inflamed his own army to extreme impatience.

At length he made the attack, and near Aquæ Sextiæ, now Aix in Provence, he exterminated the Teutonic host (102 B.C.). After Marius had completed this work he passed into the plains of Verona, where Catulus found himself unable to withstand the terrific hordes whom the snow-clad mountains and impetuous torrents of the Alps had not arrested in their course. The two consuls having joined forces advanced across the Po and annihilated (101) the Cimbri in the battle of Vercellæ (on the Raudine plain).

The human avalanche, which for thirteen years had alarmed the nations from the Danube to the Ebro, from the Seine to the Po, rested beneath the sod or toiled under the yoke of slavery; the homeless people of the Cimbri and their comrades were no more.

The Roman Army.—The armies which had gained the battles at Aquæ Sextiæ and Vercellæ were no longer composed, as of old, of citizens who fought when their country wanted them, and then went back to their work, but they were full of men who had taken to a soldier's life as a regular profession.

There had been for a long time among the wealthier classes a growing disinclination for service, and as the middle class was rapidly disappearing there had been great difficulty in filling the ranks. To meet this, though the old obligation to service was not abolished, volunteering was not only allowed, but became the practice, and the army with a new drill, and no longer consisting of Romans or even Italians, but of men of all nations, became as effective as of old, if not more so, and at the same time a body detached from the state.

This army was divided into legions (subdivided into ten cohorts of 600 men each), to which Marius gave as a new standard the silver eagle, henceforward the emblem of the Roman state.

Marius in Peace.—Twenty years had elapsed since the bloody corpse of Caius Gracchus had been flung into the Tiber, when the man appeared who seemed to be destined to continue his work and bring it to a successful issue. This was Marius, who after his return from the Cimbrian campaign was discharging the consular office for the sixth time (100 B.C.). But though sufficiently ambitious to carry out the plans of the Gracchi, he wanted judgment and firmness.

Allying himself with Saturninus, the tribune, and Glaucia, the prætor, three laws were carried:

1. A division of land among the veterans of Marius.

2. The planting of large colonies in Sicily, Achaia, and Macedonia.

3. To supply the new settlers with money from the treasury to enable them to stock their farms.

A fourth law, to reduce the price of the corn annually to Roman citizens, led to terrible riots. Saturninus and Glaucia were declared public enemies by the Senate. They, trusting to his protection, surrendered themselves to Marius, who allowed the Senate to put them to death. Marius had so completely exhibited his political incapacity to all the world that he suddenly dropped into total oblivion and contempt from the summit of popularity and the highest office of the Republic. On the pretext of a vow that he had made to the Phrygian *mother of the gods*, he went to Asia Minor, where he impatiently waited for an opportunity which would enable him to return to Rome and to show that he was still the great military genius he had been.

The Social War.—While the Italian allies had originally stood to the Romans, partly in the relation of brothers under tutelage, protected rather than ruled, and not destined to perpetual minority, partly in that of slaves tolerably treated and not utterly deprived of the hope of manumission, they were now all of them subject nearly in equal degree and with equal hopelessness to the rod and axes of their Roman masters. To prevent a rising of the Italians against this intolerable yoke the tribune Marcus Livius Drusus proposed (91 B.C.) that the citizenship of Rome should be given to all the Italians. Both nobles and people were angry with Drusus for bringing forward this law, and the necessary reform was delayed by a bold use of the knife. On the day on which it was to have been voted upon Drusus was murdered.

This murder drove the Italians to despair. Eight nations, chiefly of the Sabine stock, entered into close alliance, chose Corfinium for their capital, and formed a federal republic, to which they gave the name of "ITALIA." The struggle of the Sabellian ox against the Roman she-wolf (as one of the coins of the insurgents represents it) began in the winter of 91-90. At the outset great success attended the effort, and it seemed as if Rome must have succumbed. But the sagacious policy of Rome changed the face of affairs and secured her a triumph which she could not have accomplished by arms alone. At first they gave the Roman citizenship to all the Italians who had not yet revolted; then to all who should lay down their arms in two months.

We may divide this social war into two periods, each well defined and each consisting of a year, the first (90 B.C.), in which the confederate cause triumphed and Marius, who had returned from Asia, lost credit; the second (89 B.C.), in which the cause of Rome triumphed and Sulla enhanced his reputation and became the foremost man at Rome. He had conquered stubborn Samnium, which had shown again all the old vigor of the Samnite wars. Sulla had entirely eclipsed Marius, whose sympathies were secretly with the revoltors and who had no desire to push them to extremities.

Marius and Sulla.—Before the social war had been brought to its close tidings were received in Rome (88) that the Greek cities of Asia, upon an order of Mithradates, king of Pontus, had put to death in one day all the Italians within their walls (80,000). An army under a well-tried general had to be despatched at once to Asia. Marius, the conqueror of the northern and southern barbarians, thought it his due to be sent against the barbarians in the East. But the part taken by him in the Social war had redounded little to his credit. Sulla, on the other hand, had greatly increased his reputation, and it was therefore natural that he should be selected by the Senate as the commander against Mithradates. But the comitia deprived Sulla of his commission and transferred the command to Marius. The insulted consul was not prepared to submit to his adversary. Quitting Rome he joined his legions in Campania and marched them straight upon the capital. Marius, at first, repulsed Sulla's attack, but the victory finally remained with Sulla. The defeated Marians were forced to seek safety in flight. Marius himself barely escaped with his life and reached Africa an almost unattended fugitive. Sulla now restored the power of the Senate; but, on the whole, he legislated as little as he could, and proscribed as few as he could. Only he tried to get two of his partisans elected consuls for the year 87 B.C. Instead of them, however, Lucius Cornelius Cinna, a determined leader of the democracy, and Cnæus Octavius were elected. As long as Sulla was in Rome things remained quiet, but no sooner was he gone than the flames of civil war burst out afresh.

Cinna endeavored to restore the exiled Marius. But forced to fly he threw himself upon the legionaries, invited Marius over from Africa, and marched on Rome. Again the city was taken and Marius and Cinna assumed the consulship. Sulla himself was proscribed, his friends were butchered, and a reign of terror was inaugurated which lasted for several months. But the death of Marius (early

in 86 B.C.) put a stop to the worst of these horrors, though Rome remained for two years longer under a revolutionary government.

First Mithradatic War.—Since 133 B.C. the Romans had been in possession of the Pergamene kingdom, which had become a Roman province under the name of Asia (Plate XII. 2). Being the wealthiest country in the possession of the republic, it attracted in crowds the Roman merchants, money-lenders, and adventurers, who vied with the annual governors in rapacity and reckless cruelty. Very soon the ill-used provincials began to look upon the government of their native kings, with all its despotic rigor, as a lost happiness, which it was their devout wish to see restored. By the side of the Roman province several ancient principalities continued to maintain their independence, Bithynia and Pontus (or rather Pontic Cappadocia) being the most important. Pontus had never been incorporated with the Persian monarchy; nor was it conquered by Alexander the Great. The native princes owed this happy independence partly to their geographical position in the northern extremity of Asia Minor, partly to the ruggedness and sterility of the greater part of their possessions. Since 120 B.C. it was ruled by Mithradates V. This energetic ruler had gradually added to his patrimony all the coast of the Black Sea as far as the Danube, and now thought himself quite a match for Rome, which was just then convulsed by civil war (88 B.C.). He overran Galatia, Phrygia, and the province of Asia, and proclaimed himself the deliverer of Asia from the Roman yoke, ordering that all Romans on Asiatic soil should on one day be massacred, which caused the death of 80,000 persons. The Romans confided the conduct of the war to Sulla, who (86 B.C.) destroyed the Pontic army at Chæronea in Bœotia (Plate X.). He recovered Greece, Macedonia, and Asia Minor. By the peace of Dardanus in 84 B.C. Mithradates had not only to abandon all his conquests, but had to surrender his fleet and pay a fine of 3,000 talents (\$3,750,000). Sulla inflicted upon the Greek cities of Asia Minor the immense fine of 20,000 talents (\$25,000,000) which his lieutenant Lucullus was to collect.

Sulla's Dictatorship.—The outlawed Sulla now returned to Italy with as much composure as if he came in profound peace, to demand a triumph, the fruit of his victories. From Brundisium, where he landed with 40,000 men, he marched up the country in the best order, and preserving the strictest discipline. He knew that the party of the nobles, whereof he was the representative, was still

strong at Rome, and he felt that he could count on the army, which he had now so often led to victory. The strength of the democracy lay in the Roman mob and in the Italians. For the former he had all a soldier's contempt, but the latter he knew to be formidable. He therefore, with adroit policy, declared publicly that he "intended no interference with the rights of any citizen, new or old." He defeated the consul, C. Norbanus, on Mount Tifata, near Capua, and seduced into his service the army of L. Scipio, the other consul (83 B.C.). The consuls for 82, the younger Marius and Carbo, were also unable to hold their own against Sulla.

The northern army was destroyed in detail by Carbo's unskilfulness and the last hopes of the democrats were ruined by the battle of the Colline Gate, where Sulla and Crassus, after a desperate struggle, succeeded in defeating the remnants of Carbo's army, reinforced by the Italians under C. Pontius Telesinus.

The triumph of Sulla and the nobles was stained by a murderous cruelty such as Rome had never yet witnessed.

The number of the outlawed, on whose death a reward was set and whose property was confiscated, amounted to 4,700. He distributed their property among the soldiers of his forty-seven legions. Sulla remained lord of Rome, first without any title; then he revived the dictatorship, which had not existed for 120 years, and ruled as dictator for nearly three years. He took the surname of *Felix* (the Fortunate) and tried by means of his Cornelian laws to perpetuate the rule of the nobles. He reorganized the Senate by the addition of 300 members to be chosen by the comitia tributa. Thus the Senate for a short time was indirectly chosen by the people and acquired a representative character. He reduced the powers of the tribunes and reorganized the courts. After perpetrating acts on which few tyrants would have ventured, in order to bequeath a throne to a long posterity, Sulla laid down the dictatorship, retired into private life, and employed himself in writing his history; he passed the remainder of his days in the midst of all intellectual and personal enjoyments, and died in the infirmity of age, on the second day after completing the twenty-second book of his *Memoirs* (78 B.C.).

The Rise of Pompey.—On the death of Sulla there was still living one of the great leaders of the democracy, Sertorius, who, after many adventures, had founded an independent sovereignty in Lusitania. For more than eighteen years he baffled the Roman generals sent against him. Just as he was about to make common cause with Mithradates

against Rome he was murdered by his subordinate, Perperna. The latter was defeated and executed by Pompeius (72 B.C.). Returning to Italy, he annihilated the remnants of the gladiatorial army which had escaped from the sword of Crassus, who had defeated them on the Silarus, where their leader Spartacus fell (71 B.C.).

The conquerors of Sertorius and Spartacus received the consulship for 70 B.C., during which they overthrew the Sullan constitution by restoring to the tribunes their former privileges and curtailing the power of the Senate. Three years later Pompey endeared himself still more to the people by promptly annihilating the pirates who controlled at that time (67 B.C.) the entire Mediterranean as far as the columns of Hercules and captured the vessels which were conveying grain to Rome.

On the motion of the tribune Gabinius, to Pompey was given authority over all the Mediterranean coasts, and over every city and territory within fifty miles of the seaboard. These extraordinary powers were used quite unexceptionably. Pompey applied them solely to the purposes of the war, which he began and ended in three months.

Second and Third Mithradatic Wars.—The disasters suffered by Mithradates in his first war with the Romans had encouraged his Bosphoric provinces (the present Crimea) to revolt, and while trying to subdue them he was, without provocation, attacked by the Roman commander Murena (second Mithradatic War, 83–82 B.C.). He was only too glad to make peace with the Romans, in order to subdue his own rebels and begin his preparations for the unavoidable struggle. For the attack of Murena had shown him what he had to expect from Rome. Nothing was left undone that care and energy could accomplish toward the construction of a power which might fairly hope to hold its own when the time for a final trial of strength with Rome should arrive. It came (74 B.C.) when Nicomedes III. bequeathed Bithynia by his last will to the Roman people. Had Mithradates allowed Rome to take possession the Pontic Kingdom would have been laid open to attack along the whole of its western border. He therefore resolved to seize Bithynia before the Romans could occupy it. This brought about the final struggle (third Mithradatic War, 74–65 B.C.), which lasted nearly nine years. The protraction of the war was owing, in the first place, to the genius and energy of the Pontic monarch, who created army after army, and who gradually learned the wisdom of avoiding pitched battles. It was further owing to the participation in it of a new foe, Tigranes, who brought

to the aid of Mithradates a force exceeding his own, and very considerable resources.

Rome was barely capable of contending at one and the same time with two such kingdoms as those of Pontus and Armenia, and up to the close of 67 B.C. she had made no great impression on either of her two adversaries. But now the genius of Pompey devised a scheme by which an immediate and decisive result was made attainable. His treaty with Phraates, King of Parthia, brought a new power into the field—a power fully capable of turning the balance in favor of the side where-to it attached itself. The attitude of Phraates paralyzed Tigranes, and the Pontic monarch, deprived of the succors on which he had hitherto greatly depended, was completely overmatched. Defeated near the Armenian border by the Romans under Pompey, and forbidden to seek a refuge in Armenia, he had no choice but to yield his patrimony to the victors and to retire to those remote territories of which he had become possessed by conquest.

His spirit was still unbroken, and he formed the bold plan of invading Italy from the north; but at last his son, Pharnaces, was proclaimed king by the soldiers who were unwilling to embark in so wild a project. This broke his spirit, and the great warrior who had withstood the power of Rome for twenty-five years took poison. It was ineffectual, from the frequent use he had made of poisons and antidotes, and he was, at his own request, killed by a faithful Gaul in his service (63 B.C.).

The death of Mithradates was looked upon by the Romans as equivalent to a victory; the messengers who reported to the general the catastrophe appeared crowned with laurel, as if they had a victory to announce, in the Roman camp before Jericho. In him a great enemy was borne to the tomb—greater than had ever yet withstood the Romans in the indolent East.

Rise of Cæsar.—During Pompey's absence in Asia, Catiline, of the noble house of the Sergii, entered into a conspiracy against the subsisting constitution (63).

Rome fell into that peril which menaces every state where there exists no well-regulated power to restrain the audacity of men who have nothing to lose and are destitute of conscience. Sallust relates in his "*Conspiracy of Catiline*" how Cicero, the consul, discovered the plot, how he directed against it the thunders of his eloquence, and how Catiline, with arms in his hands, fell with a courage worthy of a better cause (62 B.C.).

This affair made Cicero for the moment the leading man in Rome, but in reality he had the confidence of neither of the great parties.

Cato, a descendant of the old censor, was the leader of the nobles; Cæsar, the nephew of Marius, the leader of the democracy. Of the three, the one whose genius was the greatest, and whose influence manifestly tended to preponderate, was Cæsar. Accused of complicity in the conspiracy of Catiline, he forced Cicero to admit that, on the contrary, he had given the information which led to its detection. Elected prætor in 62, he obtained, in 61, the government of Further Spain, where he completed the conquest of Lusitania, and made himself the favorite of an important army. His star was clearly in the ascendant, when Pompey, after an absence of more than five years, at length returned from Asia to Rome (61 B.C.).

First Triumvirate.—It seemed to many that Pompeius, in the newly-erected Asiatic provinces, had laid the foundation of his dominion over Rome. He came back with the treasures, the army, and the halo of glory which the future sovereign of the Roman state required. But while in the capital all were preparing for receiving the new monarch, news came that Pompeius, when barely landed at Brundisium, had broken up his legions, and with a small escort had entered on his journey to the capital.

The parties breathed freely. Instead of the enthusiastic reception on which he had counted, the reception which he met with was more than cool, and still cooler was the treatment given to the demands which he presented. He demanded allotments of lands for his soldiers, and the ratification of his Asiatic "*acts*" (the organization of Western Asia). But the Senate had passed from undue alarm to undue contempt. Pompey's requests were refused, his "*acts*" remained unconfirmed—and his veterans were denied their promised allotments.

Hereupon, Pompey accepted the overtures made to him by Cæsar, and this resulted in the so-called FIRST TRIUMVIRATE, which was nothing but a reciprocal agreement of Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus, to help each other to obtain the highest offices in the republic. The first fruit of this agreement was the election of Cæsar to the consulate.

During this consulship (59 B.C.), he carried an Agrarian law, especially in the interests of Pompey's veterans and the ratification of Pompey's organization of Western Asia.

At the close of his consulate, Cæsar obtained for himself the government of the two Gauls and of Illyricum, for a space of five years. In 56 B.C. the Triumvirs met at Lucca to arrange plans for their further aggrandizement. Pompey and Crassus should be consuls for the ensuing year, and at the end of their con-

sulate should obtain such provinces as suited them best. Cæsar required the prolongation of his pro-consulship for a second term of five years.

This was all carried out and at the end of their consulate Pompey obtained the government of both Spains, and Crassus that of Syria.

Pompey remained in Rome, but Crassus went, in 54 B.C., to Syria, where he undertook, in 53, an expedition against the Parthians, during which he was killed after suffering a terrible defeat at Carrhæ (see Plate XII. 2). His death made an end to the first Triumvirate.

The Conquest of Gaul.—Cæsar remained in Gaul about nine years, in the first seven of which he succeeded in entirely conquering all the land north of the Pyrenees and west of the Rhine. He even crossed over to Britain (54 B.C.), though he did not stay to conquer it. Cæsar was not only a skilful general, but a great writer as well, and he has left us his own account of this conquest, so very important for the future of Rome herself. By this conquest and Romanization of Celtic Gaul he erected a dam which for nearly four centuries protected the Romano-Hellenic civilization against destruction by the barbarians. Perceiving in the German tribes the rival antagonists of the Romano-Hellenic world, he established a new system of aggressive defence, and taught men to protect the frontiers of the Empire by rivers or artificial ramparts, to colonize the nearest barbarian tribes along the frontier with the view of warding off the more remote, and to recruit the Roman army by enlistment from the enemy's country. Cæsar conquered not merely a new province for the Romans, but laid the foundation for the Romanizing of the regions of the West.

It was only a late posterity that perceived the meaning of those expeditions to Britain and Germany, so inconsiderate in a military point of view and so barren of immediate result. An immense circle of peoples were disclosed by this means to the Romano-Hellenic world. This enlargement of the historical horizon by Cæsar's expeditions was as much an event in the world's history as the exploration of America in the sixteenth century.

In both cases to the old world was added a new one, which thenceforth was influenced by the old and influenced it in turn.

Cæsar and Pompey.—But not the least consequence of the conquest of Gaul was that Cæsar had formed a powerful army devoted wholly to his interests. With it he felt himself more than a match for Pompey and the Senate, who were showing in various ways

that they were anxious to push him aside. The Senate, at Pompey's instigation, *demand*ed that Cæsar should resign his command before the expiration of the term which had formerly been granted him, and *refused* him to stand for the consulship during his pro-consulship, as had been allowed by the citizens. Cæsar would have lost all at which he had aimed for ten years had he yielded to them.

He rather "*crossed the Rubicon*" and began his march upon Rome. Pompey retired as Cæsar advanced, and finally crossed from Brundisium to Epirus without fighting a battle.

This threw all Italy into Cæsar's arms, who at once occupied the seat of government, and took hold of the state-treasure. Italy at once submitted to the master of Rome, who now ruled the entire middle region of the state, from the German Ocean to the African Sea and from the Pyrenees to Mount Scardus. Pompey, however, still possessed the East, Africa, and Spain. Cæsar took at once the offensive, and was everywhere victorious. First Spain was attacked (49 B.C.) and for the time reduced to subjection, then the war was transferred to the East, and its issue practically decided in the Thessalian plain at Pharsalia (48 B.C.). Pompey fled to the coast and took ship for Egypt by way of Lesbos. At the command of the minister of the young king Ptolemæus he was murdered upon landing.

Cæsar and the Pompeian Party.—The necessity of following up his adversary and striking, if it were necessary, a last blow, drew Cæsar to Egypt. He landed at Alexandria with only 4,000 men. Finding himself soon in a most critical position he seized and fortified the Pharos, burnt the Egyptian fleet, and sent hastily for re-enforcements. They soon came under Mithradates of Pergamus. The Egyptian army was destroyed, and Cæsar marched to Asia to quell the insurrection of Pharnaces, son of the great Mithradates. Cæsar conquered him at Zela (Plate XII. 3). The laconic bulletin *veni, vidi, vici* (I came, I saw, I conquered), expressed the rapidity of his conquest. Pharnaces was soon afterward killed, and his kingdom served to reward Mithradates of Pergamus. The Pompeians gathered in the Roman province of Africa, where they had the support of Juba, King of Numidia. Cæsar hurried his legions hither, and at Thapsus destroyed the Pompeian party in Africa, which submitted at once to the conqueror. The Pompeians who escaped from Thapsus established themselves in Spain, where they were finally conquered in the terrible battle of Munda (45 B.C.), in which 30,000 Pompeians fell.

Cæsar's Administration.—Cæsar saw distinctly that the time for the republic had gone by, that for the interest of all who lived within the borders of the Roman State a permanent supreme ruler was required. He knew also that he was the only man fit at the time to exercise this office. But in deference to the Roman attachment to old forms he caused the Senate to appoint him at first (45) consul for ten years, afterward (44) dictator and censor for life.

Since 48 B.C., however, he had appropriated the substance of royalty, under the title of **IMPERATOR**. He appeared no longer in public now in the robe of consuls, which was bordered with purple stripes, but in the robe wholly of purple, which was reckoned in antiquity as the proper regal attire, and received, sitting on his golden chair and without rising from it, the solemn procession of the Senate. By the side of the new monarch arose a monarchical aristocracy, which most happily combined the charm of antiquity and entire dependence on the government with total insignificance. Cæsar got, by a decree of the people, the right of adding new patrician gentes to the sixteen that still survived from hoary antiquity, and so established the new aristocracy of the patriciate.

Cæsar only held power for the space of about five years (48–44), and, although the greater portion of this period was occupied by a series of most important wars, he found, nevertheless, time to bring forward a series of measures, which were generally at once moderate, judicious, and popular.

The Senate, which was enlarged to the number of 900, became again, what it had been under the kings, an advisory council only, and he filled up its ranks from the provincials, no less than from the class of Roman citizens.

The entire population of Transpadane Gaul (Northern Italy to the north of the river Po) and numerous communities in Gaul, Spain, and elsewhere were raised to the ranks of citizens. He gave his veterans lands, chiefly beyond the seas, planting them, among other places, at Corinth and Carthage, cities which he did not fear to rebuild. He proposed the codification of the laws.

He appointed a commission to execute a survey of the whole empire, a work of labor which seems to have been steadily continued, even through the turbulent years that followed, till it issued in the great map of Agrippa, a whole generation later. As Pontifex Maximus he undertook a reformation of the calendar, in which he was assisted by the Alexandrian mathematician Sosigènes.

Murder of Cæsar.—Many of the Romans disliked the innovations made by Cæsar. The nobility was deeply offended by his appointment of Gauls, Spaniards, and even sons of freedmen to the Senate. Zealous republicans were angered at the constant attempts of Cæsar's friends to hail him as *king*.

The conspiracy of sixty nobles against the life of Cæsar, formed by Brutus and Cassius, found so many abettors because there was engrained in the Roman mind a detestation of the name of *king*.

At a meeting of the Senate (in the curia of Pompey) on March 15, 44, Cæsar was attacked by the conspirators and fell lifeless at the base of Pompey's statue. He was hacked to death with twenty-three blows, of which one only, it was said, would have been in itself mortal.

The murderers were content to leave all further proceedings to the Senate, who endeavored to conciliate both parties by confirming the laws and ordinances of Cæsar and at the same time passing an act of indemnity for his assassination.

Marcus Antonius alone refused to sanction this amnesty. His funeral oration over the body of Cæsar roused the people to fury and drove the assassins from the city—Decimus Brutus into Gallia Cisalpina, Marcus Brutus into Macedonia, and Caius Cassius into Syria. No sooner were they departed than Antonius contrived to obtain the substance of supreme power for himself. Having secured the co-operation of Lepidus, Cæsar's Master of the Horse, who alone had an armed force on the spot, Mark Antony disposed as he thought fit of offices, provinces, estates, privileges, and civil rights.

These proceedings were soon resisted by Octavianus, a youth of nineteen, great-nephew and adopted son of Julius Cæsar. He received the support of the Senate, and especially of Cicero, who denounced Antony in fiery orations (the *Philippics*).

Antony was forced into exile, and then, twice defeated in battle, took refuge with Lepidus in Gaul. Octavianus, by the death of both consuls (Hirtius and Pansa), now sole commander of the army, marched to Rome and extorted his appointment to the consulship and the repeal of the amnesty extended to Cæsar's murderers.

Second Triumvirate.—Octavianus was now made commander-in-chief of all the forces of the Republic for the avowed purpose of annihilating the party of Brutus and Cassius. But only by the aid of Antony could he hope to triumph over the assassins, whose party in the West was in no wise contemptible, and

who had all the resources of the East at their disposal. Accordingly his late enemies, Antony and Lepidus, were invited to confer with Octavianus on an island in the river Reno (near Bononia, now *Bologna*). Here they formed the Second Triumvirate avowedly for the "*Organization of the State*." This self-constituted *Board of Three*, who were conjointly to rule the state, was ratified by a decree of the people for a period of five years.

After outlawing their private enemies and confiscating their property the Triumvirs crossed to Greece and defeated (42 B.C.) Brutus and Cassius in the battle of Philippi, in Thrace (Plate XII. 2). For a moment it looked as if the conquerors at Philippi would draw the sword against each other; but the meeting of the Triumvirs at Brundisium (40 B.C.) postponed for a while the inevitable struggle.

A final division of the empire was arranged, Octavianus, receiving the Western provinces, Antony the Eastern, and Lepidus Africa. In the following year, however, the Triumvirs were obliged to make terms with Sextus, sole surviving son of Pompey, who had succeeded in creating a naval power strong enough to enable him to cut off the grain supplies from Rome. By the treaty of Misenum (39 B.C.) he received beside Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, the province of Achaia, and the consulate, Sextus Pompeius, on his part pledging himself to supply Italy with grain.

The imperfect fulfilment of these conditions by both parties occasioned a renewal of the war between Octavianus and Sextus Pompeius (38-36 B.C.), in which the latter was defeated off Mylæ by Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa, and fleeing to Asia Minor was assassinated at Miletus. Lepidus, who had landed in Sicily and claimed the island for himself, was forced to surrender to Octavianus, who deprived him of the administration of Africa and sent him to Circeii, permitting him, however, to retain the dignity of Pontifex Maximus.

Octavianus and Antony.—With the removal of Lepidus a war between Octavianus and Antony became only a question of time. The marriage of Antony and Octavia, the sister of Octavianus, had failed to unite the interest of the rivals, especially after he had left Octavia behind him in Italy, and in 36 had reunited himself with Cleopatra. And when, in his infatuation, he actually ceded to Cleopatra, a foreigner, the Roman provinces of Cœle-Syria and Cyprus, he furnished Octavianus with a decent pretext for a declaration of war.

A popular decree removed Antony from his command and declared war upon Cleopatra. Antony assembled his armaments on the coast

of Epirus, and prepared to cross into Italy. Octavianus occupied the eastern shore of Italy. For a while the rivals watched each other across the Adriatic. At length (in the spring of 31 B.C.) Octavianus transported his army to Epirus. The fleet of 250 ships, under the command of Agrippa, defeated the fleet of Antony and Cleopatra in the battle of Actium (September 2, 31 B.C.). (See Plate VIII.).

They fled before the fortune of the day was decided and sought refuge in Egypt; their fleet was burned and the land forces surrendered to the victor.

Octavianus proceeded into Syria, and thence invaded Egypt, where he urged Cleopatra to rid him of his adversary. Antony, informed accordingly, by command of Cleopatra herself, that she had committed suicide, fell on his own sword. She destroyed herself afterward and was buried by the side of Antony. The battle of Actium reaffirmed the destiny of Rome, and the death of the Republic was illustrated by the annexation of Egypt. The circle of conquest around the Mediterranean was complete—the function of the Republic was discharged.

Thus the military organization common to all the cities of antiquity at length had its effect—a sad effect. War being the natural condition of things, the weak were overpowered by the strong, and, more than once, one might have seen formed states of considerable magnitude under the control or tyranny of a victorious and dominant city. Finally one arose, Rome, which, possessing greater energy, patience, and skill, more capable of subordination and command, of conservative views and practical calculations, succeeded, after 700 years of effort, in incorporating under her dominion the entire basin of the Mediterranean.

To gain this point she submitted to military discipline, and, like a fruit springing from its germ, a military despotism was the issue. Thus was the Empire formed.

After the new system had been permanently settled in the tranquillity of the Augustan age, the great change which had passed over the Roman dominion was found to be that in the place of *anarchy* there had come *centralization and responsibility*, which, however, had to be harmonized with the institutions and traditions of the old republic.

To this delicate task OCTAVIAN set himself, and no man was ever better fitted for it.

Octavian shared the thrifty habits and simplicity of life of the mass of the Italians. Nor would the more splendid qualities of the great Julius have served Octavian better in the work he had to do than his own self-control, and his indifference to the mere externals of power.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

THE REGULATION OF THE EMPIRE.

In the month of Sextilis (afterward named from him Augustus), 29 B.C., Octavian returned to Rome and celebrated a triple triumph for his late victories. The temple of Janus was now closed for the third time (once under King Numa and once in 235 B.C.). Although the undisputed master of the Roman world, Octavian determined to obtain from the Senate, as free concessions, the recognition of those privileges which he had already virtually conferred on himself. With this view he persuaded them to invest him with all the highest offices of state, Imperator (30), Princeps Senatus (28), Tribune (23), Consul (19), Censor (19), and Pontifex Maximus (12 B.C.).

As IMPERATOR (*Emperor*) he was not only head of the army, but had command of all the provinces; as PRINCEPS (*Prince*), or chief man of the Senate, he always spoke first on every question. Next he received the TRIBUNATE for life and as such became head of the people; and then the CONSULSHIP AND CENSORSHIP for life, and as such was the chief magistrate of Rome. Lastly, he became PONTIFEX MAXIMUS (*High-priest*), and so was head of the Roman religion. Thus he gathered into his own hands the control over every part of the old government, and also held his powers for life.

The title of AUGUSTUS (*Majesty*), conferred on him in the year 27 B.C., was also borne by his successors.

Augustus was thirty-four years of age when he obtained the undisputed mastery of the Roman world. He kept it for the long term of forty-three years. This long tenure of power, joined to his own prudence and sagacity, enabled him to settle the foundations of the Empire on so firm and solid a basis that they were never, except for a moment, shaken afterward.

CONSTITUTION OF THE EMPIRE FROM 30 B.C. TO 300 A.D.

I. THE IMPERIAL PREROGATIVE.—Augustus was the absolute commander of forty-seven legions, besides the auxiliary troops, amounting altogether to about 450,000 men. Over these forces the Senate had not the least control, not even over the levying of the troops. As possessor of the censorial, tribunitial, and pontifical authority, his edicts and ordinances had the force of laws.

II. THE SENATE (limited by Augustus to

600 members).—It was on the dignity of the Senate that Augustus and his successors founded their new Empire; and they affected on every occasion to adopt the language and principles of patricians. In the administration of their own powers they frequently consulted the great national council, and seemed to refer to its decision the most important concerns of peace and war. Rome, Italy, and the internal provinces were subject to its intermediate jurisdiction. Every power was derived from their authority, every law was ratified by their sanction. The debates were conducted with decent freedom, and the emperors themselves, who gloried in the name of Senators, sat, voted, and divided with their equals.

III. THE MAGISTRACIES.—The ancient magistracies were continued, but conveyed dignity rather than authority and were coveted chiefly as distinctions. The consuls were generally elected every two months and retained merely the privilege of presiding in the Senate and a share in the jurisdiction. Three new offices were created, which were entirely under the control of the Emperor.

1. The Prefect of the City (*præfectus urbi*), to whom the public order in Rome was confided.

2. The Commanders of the Guard (*præfecti prætorio*), who took precedence immediately after the Emperor, and were, in some respects, his lieutenants even in civil affairs.

3. The *Præfectus annonæ*, who superintended the supply of corn.

IV. THE EMPIRE.—Rome, instead of being itself the state, became merely the capital of a more extended empire, the ordinary boundaries of which were, in Europe, the rivers Rhine and Danube; in Asia, the Euphrates and the Syrian desert; in Africa, likewise the desert. It thus included the fairest portions of the earth surrounding the Mediterranean.

The division of the provinces was made in such a manner that those in which no regular armies were kept were assigned to the Senate, whereas those in which armies were stationed belonged to the Emperor, who appointed their governors, who were under his exclusive control.

Even in the senatorial provinces Augustus had officers who kept watch over the governors of the Senate. The Empire delivered the provinces from the oppression of the Roman nobles, and made them equal with Italy, both alike being parts of a great system of govern-

THE IULIAN HOUSE.

ment, at the head of which was the Emperor. The immense dominion naturally fell into three parts.

The western basin of the Mediterranean as far as the Adriatic, where Roman language and manners took root everywhere, and which we may call *the Latin provinces*.

The eastern basin of the Mediterranean as far as Mount Taurus, where Greek language and manners prevailed, and which we may call *the Greek provinces*.

In the countries beyond Mount Taurus little Greek and less Latin was spoken, but the people adhered to their old languages and manners. We may call them the Oriental Provinces.

The borders of the Empire were guarded by fortified camps, which were distributed as follows : Three legions were sufficient for Britain. The principal strength lay upon the Rhine and Danube, and consisted of sixteen legions. The defence of the Euphrates was intrusted to eight legions. With regard to Egypt, Africa, and Spain, as they were far removed from any important scene of war, a single legion maintained the domestic tranquillity of each of those great provinces.

THE IULIAN HOUSE.

Augustus ruled the Roman world from 30 B.C. to 14 A.D., and the Romans were happy under his rule after all their wars. His reign witnessed the highest development of Roman literature. It was in his honor that Publius Vergilius Maro (70–19 B.C.) wrote his poem of the *Æneid*, to tell the deeds of *Æneas*, the ancestor of the Julian race. Quintus Horatius Flaccus (65–8 B.C.) and Publius Ovidius Naso (43 B.C.–17 A.D.) also wrote poems at this time, and Titus Livius (59 B.C.–17 A.D.) wrote his great history of Rome. Augustus was fond of having literary men about him, and used to encourage them to write. Hence it is customary to talk about the Augustan age of literature as being that in which there were the best writers, and they were the most highly esteemed.

Though Augustus was, for the most part, busy with arranging his provinces, he also carried on some wars. The most important of these was with the Germans, whom he wished to conquer. At one time the whole country between the Rhine and Elbe seemed conquered. But the Germans rose against their conquerors and under the leadership of the Cheruscan chieftain, Arminius, annihilated, in the Teutoburg Forest, three Roman legions under Quinctilius Varus (9 A.D.). After this defeat the Romans gave up all attempts to conquer the country beyond the Rhine, and

held no land on its right bank except the *Agri Decumates*. (See Plate XVII.)

All their endeavors were directed to prevent the Germans from crossing that river. Besides the Germans in the North, the Romans had to fear the Parthians in the far East. When (20 B.C.) the Parthian King Phraates heard of the arrival of Augustus in Syria he restored, of his own accord, the Roman standards which, thirty-three years ago, had been taken from Crassus. When Augustus died he left directions to his successors not to increase the Roman Dominium, and up to the end of the Empire only two other countries were added (Britain, 51 A.D., and Dacia, 106 A.D.).

The Successors of Augustus.—For fifty-four years the Empire remained in the family of Augustus. That is, down to 68 A.D. all the emperors were Cæsars by adoption, and most of them were really descendants of Augustus through his daughter Julia. (See Genealogy.) These emperors were Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nero, four men whose names have burnt themselves forever into the memory of the human race. All these men in different ways illustrated the terrible efficacy of absolute world-dominion to poison the character and even to unhinge the intellect of him who wielded it. Their hands were heavy on the old senatorial families of Rome, heavier still on their own race, the long descended posterity of *Æneas*. But the imperial *reign of terror* was limited to a comparatively small number of families in Rome. The provinces were undoubtedly better governed than in the later days of the Republic, and even in Rome itself the people strewed flowers on the grave of Nero.

THE FIRST ANARCHY.

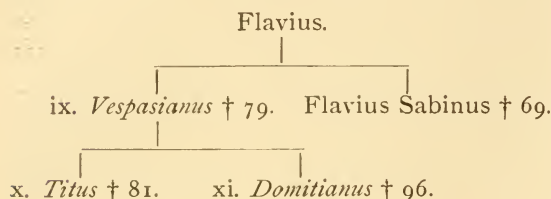
With Nero, the IULIAN HOUSE had become extinct. This paved the way for fresh civil commotions by practically opening the prospect of obtaining supreme power to numerous claimants. Henceforth the first place in the state was a prize at which anyone might aim, no family ever subsequently obtaining the same hold on power or the same prestige in the eyes of the Romans as the Iulians.

Galba, who became Emperor by the will of the Spanish legions, was within nine months overpowered and slain by *Otho*, who was disappointed in not being adopted and declared successor. Successful in seizing the throne, *Otho* found his right to it disputed by *Vitellius*, commander of the German legions.

Within three months *Otho* was conquered in the great battle of *Betricum* and by a prompt suicide made the Empire over to his rival, *Vitellius*, who had all *Otho's* vices, and in addi-

tion was cowardly and vacillating. Within four months the Syrian legions refused him obedience and proclaimed their own general, *Titus Flavius Vespasianus*. Vitellius now was attacked on all sides, and after great tumults the Flavian army stormed and took Rome, defeated and destroyed the Vitellians, and obtaining possession of the Emperor's person, put him to an ignominious death, December 21, 69.

THE FLAVII.



The just, if somewhat hard, rule of Vespasian, or the two years' beneficent sway of Titus, "*the delight of the human race*," and the miserable tyranny of Domitian, had very little in common. But the stupendous Colosseum and the Arch of Titus, at Rome; and the Amphitheatre at Verona, serve as architectural landmarks to fix the Flavian period in the memory of men. One other characteristic was necessarily shared by the whole family, the humble origin from which they sprung.

While it gave a touch of meanness to the close and frugal government of Vespasian, it evidently intensified the delight of Domitian in setting his plebeian feet on the necks of all that was left of refined or aristocratic society in Rome.

During his reign the Roman power over Britain was firmly established.

BRITAIN.

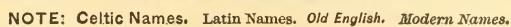
Celtic Britain.—The condition of the British Isles prior to the Roman invasion is a subject wrapped in obscurity. Their authentic history begins in the age of Alexander the Great (333 B.C.), when the Greeks acquired an extensive knowledge of the western and northern countries from Gibraltar to the mouth of the Vistula. At that time merchants of Marseilles fitted out an expedition, accompanied by Pytheas, an eminent mathematician of that city. Pytheas coasted along a portion of the British Isles, and also landed in Britain, where he remained some time, and claimed to have visited most of the accessible ports and taken astronomical notes. He found Britain inhabited by Celts. Nobody knows when the first Celts settled in Britain. And when they did come the

immigration was not all over in one year, nor even in one century. The invasions may, however, be grouped in two, and looked at as made by peoples of both groups of the Celtic family, each having linguistic features of its own. The national name which the members of one group have always given themselves, is that of Gaidhel, pronounced and spelt in English, Gael, but formerly written by themselves Goidel. The national name of the other group is Brython (Briton). They were really Gauls who came over to settle in the island, which was called, after them, Britain. They had been preceded, however, by the other branch. The Goidels were the first Celts to come to Britain. They had probably been here for centuries when the Brythons or Gauls came and drove them backward. The Goidels had done the same with another people, for when they landed they found a small, dark-haired race inhabiting all the British Isles. They represented the præ-Aryan population of Europe, and possibly were related to the ancestors of the Basques in Northwest Spain. These non-Celtic natives of Britain were known as Ivernians. After them Ireland was called Ivernia, distorted by the Romans into Hibernia. The Ivernians seem to have been a nation of hunters and shepherds, who learned to till the soil from the Goidels, whom they called Féini, or wagon-men (Fenians). These non-Celtic aboriginals spoke what was practically one and the same language in both Britain and Ireland. It lingered the longest in the Irish province of Munster, where it was still the common language in the time of Bede (about 700).

The Ivernians of Ireland were never extirpated, but they adopted gradually the manners and speech of the Goidelic Celts, and it is perhaps from their Ivernian ancestry that the Irish of the present day have inherited the lively humor and ready wit which, among other characteristics, distinguish them from the gloomy Kymri of Wales.

Some of the most curious and interesting remains of this Celtic period are the structures of immense blocks of stone which still exist in Britain, and though their date is disputed, yet their very early origin appears most probable. Of these, the largest, and one of the most ancient, is *Avebury* in Wilts, and the next in size and magnitude of its structural stones is *Stonehenge*, in the same county.

Roman Britain.—While Julius Cæsar was conquering Gaul, he learned that to the west of it lay an island named Britain, whose tribes were mainly of the same race with the Gauls, and gave them help in their struggle against the Romans. He resolved, therefore, to invade Britain (55 B.C.), and in two successive descents



he landed on its shores, defeated the Britons, and penetrated at last beyond the Thames. Cæsar, however, was recalled from Britain by risings in Gaul; and for a hundred years more the island remained unconquered. It was not till the time of the Emperor Claudius that its conquest was again undertaken (43 A.D.), and so swiftly was the work carried out by the Roman commanders that within thirty years the bulk of the country had passed beneath the Roman sway. Agricola (78–85 A.D.) even carried the Roman arms far into Scotland.

He drew the first line of forts between the Tyne and the Solway. But the grand work, as we see it at present, was carried out by Hadrian, thirty-five years after the recall of Agricola. Hadrian built a wall eighty miles in length, to divide the barbarians from the Romans. He does not seem to have desired to recover the portion of country between the upper and lower Isthmus, which had been conquered by Agricola, and protected by him with a second line of forts, between the Forth and the Clyde, which is now called "Graham's Dyke." Antoninus Pius, the successor of Emperor Hadrian, connected these forts of Agricola by means of a deep fosse and an earthen rampart. The ditch extends 20 miles in length, is 40 feet wide, and 20 feet deep, running in an unbroken line over hill and dale from the Clyde near Dumbarton to Caeriden on the Forth.

Henceforward, Britain formed a part of the Roman Empire. It was inhabited by a people of Celtic and Roman blood, a people governed by Celtic or Roman laws, speaking the Celtic or Latin tongue, and sharing, to a great extent, the civilization and manners and religion of the Empire. When the Empire became Christianized, Britain became a Christian country. The outer aspect of the land was that of a Roman province; it was guarded by border fortresses; it was studded with peopled cities; it was tilled by great land-owners whose villas rose proudly over the huts of the serfs. The Roman road struck like an arrow over hill and plain, and the Roman bridge spanned river and stream.

Four Roman roads deserve especially to be mentioned: Watling Street, runs from London to Wroxeter; Hermin Street, from Sussex coast to the Humber; Foss Way, from the sea-coast near Seaton, in Devonshire, to Lincoln; and Ikenild Street, from Icklingham, near Bury St. Edmund's, in Suffolk, to Wantage, in Berkshire, and on to Cirencester and Gloucester. But in spite of its roads, its villas, and fortresses, it remained, even at the close of Roman rule, an "isle of blowing woodland,"

wild and half-reclaimed country, the bulk of

whose surface was occupied by forest and waste. It was only in the towns that the conquered Britons became entirely Romanized.

THE ADOPTIVE EMPERORS.

Nerva and Trajan.—Nerva (died 98), Trajan (died 117), Hadrian (died 138), Antoninus Pius (died 161), Marcus Aurelius (died 180), and Commodus (died 192) conferred upon the Empire the inestimable boon of nearly a century of internal peace, order, and good government. Alike in Central Europe and in the remotest provinces of the Empire, we find the traces of their beneficent activity. The column at Rome which commemorates the Dacian triumphs of Trajan (completed 113 A.D.) measures also the greatness of the excavations for the magnificent Forum Trajani. They, with his triumphal arch, may be regarded as constructed for his own glory, but his chief works, his mole at Centumcellæ (Civita Vecchia), his harbor at Ancona, his roads, his bridges (across the Rhine and the Danube), and his aqueducts, were for the benefit of his subjects and justly increased the affection wherewith they regarded him.

Hadrian and Antoninus Pius.—His conquests of Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, however, had to be surrendered immediately after his decease by his successor Hadrian, who directed his attention exclusively to the improvement of the internal administration of the Empire. To promote this object he travelled through all the provinces, everywhere embellishing the chief towns, erecting monuments and building frontier fortresses.

His successor, Antoninus Pius, maintained the Empire in a state of peace and general content. After a tranquil and blameless reign of twenty-three years he performed his most meritorious act in bequeathing the Empire to Marcus Aurelius.

Marcus Aurelius.—Although the embodiment of the highest Roman virtue, he had, nevertheless, a sad and unhappy reign. A terrible plague decimated the population, and the aggressive attitude assumed by the barbarians of the East and North forced him to occupy himself almost unceasingly in efforts to check the invaders and secure the frontier against their incursions. He failed miserably in the great object of the war, which was effectually to repel the northern nations, and to strike such terror into them as to make them desist from their attacks.

Commodus.—No more striking illustration, both of the parental instinct and of the mischief of hereditary succession, could be afforded than by the change which befell the

Roman Empire 180 A.D., when Marcus Aurelius, instead of adopting a successor, left his power to his son Commodus, most brutal and profligate of tyrants. Under him the disorganization of the Empire made rapid strides again, because he was too weak and too conscious of his demerits to venture on repressing disorders or punishing those engaged in them. The army, in which lay the last hope of Roman unity and greatness, was itself becoming disorganized. No common spirit animated its different parts. The city guards, the Prætorians, and the legionaries had different interests. The soldiers were tired of the military life, and, mingling with the provincials, engaged in trade and agriculture, or else turned themselves into banditti, and preyed upon the rest of the community. Meanwhile, population was declining, and production consequently diminishing, while luxury and extravagance continued to prevail among the upper classes and to exhaust the resources of the state. Decline and decrepitude showed themselves in almost every portion of the body politic, and a general despondency, the result of a consciousness of debility, pervaded all classes. Nevertheless, under all this apparent weakness was an extraordinary reserve of strength. The Empire, which under Commodus seemed to be tottering to its fall, still stood, and resisted the most terrible attacks from without, for the further space of two full centuries.

THE BARRACK EMPERORS.

The convulsions which followed the murder of Commodus (192 A.D.) were the prelude to the reign of a class of men, whom we may call the *Barrack Emperors*, whose reigns made up a century as miserable and ruinous as the period of the Adoptive Emperors had been prosperous and tranquil. The open sale of the Imperial dignity to Didius Julianus (193 A.D.) by the Prætorian guards in Rome was only the expression in an unusually logical and shameless form of the motives which animated the Roman armies in the successive revolutions with which they afflicted the state. It had been discovered long ago that emperors could be made elsewhere than at Rome and in Britain, Gaul, Spain, Africa, or on the Persian frontiers, wherever the legions were stationed, second-rate generals were perpetually proclaimed emperors. In the period of ninety-two years which elapsed between the death of Commodus and the accession of Diocletian, no fewer than twenty-three emperors were recognized at Rome. There are, however, some great names, some heroic natures be-

longing to this time. Alexander Severus (222-235) was an excellent ruler. He fought courageously against the Sassanidæ, who had subverted the Parthian dynasty in Persia, and renewed the antiquated claims to the sovereignty of Western Asia.

Decius (249-251) and Claudius (268-270) defeated the Goths, with whom Aurelian (270-275) concluded peace by the sacrifice of the province of Dacia. He began the erection of a new wall around Rome, which included the enlarged imperial city. He captured Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra, and reconquered Egypt. He was rightly called *Restorer of the Universal Empire*.

THE PARTNERSHIP EMPERORS.

Diocletian.—This time of anarchy was closed by the accession of Diocletian, who gave voice to the passionate longing of the world that the age of mutinies might cease. With this intention he remodelled the internal constitution of the state and moulded it in a bureaucracy so strong, so stable, so wisely organized, that it subsisted virtually the same for more than a thousand years.

But the most important principle which Diocletian introduced into the politics of the Empire was administrative division. He divided the Roman world into four great prefectures, which were to be ruled, not as independent states, but still as one Empire by four partners in one great imperial firm. He associated with himself the valiant Maximian as his brother Augustus; then these two Augusti adopted and associated two younger men, Galerius and Constantius, as junior partners in the Empire, conferring upon them the slightly inferior title of Cæsars. *Cæsar* Constantius governed from his capital of Treves the PREFECTURE OF THE GAULS (Britain, Gaul, and Spain); *Augustus* Maximian from his capital of Milan administered the PREFECTURE OF ITALY (Italy, Southern Germany, Northwestern Africa); Galerius, from Sirmium on the Danube, ruled the Danubian provinces (Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia), while the rest of the Empire formed the PREFECTURE OF THE EAST (rest of the Balkan peninsula, Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt), and owned the immediate sway of Diocletian himself, who fixed his capital at Nicomedia in Bithynia. This complex governmental system thus established by Diocletian worked thoroughly well, while he himself retained the superintendence of the machine which he had invented. But when, after nineteen years of sovereignty, he retired from the cares of government to his palace near Salona, on the Dalmatian shore of



the Adriatic, his scheme soon collapsed, and before his death six men were all posing as full Roman Emperors. But by 314 A.D. two Emperors alone, Constantine and Licinius, are left, the former in the West, the latter in the East, each of whom is bound to destroy or be destroyed. At the battle of Chrysopolis Licinius is defeated; soon after he is slain, and Constantine remains sole Emperor.

The House of Constantine the Great.—Constantine the Great completed the revolution which Diocletian had begun. He abolished the prætorians and converted their prefects into civil officers. He transferred the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium (*Nova Roma, Constantinopolis*) and organized his court on the Eastern model. He redistricted the Empire by dividing and subdividing the four great prefectures of the Gauls, of Italy, of Illyricum, and of the East into thirteen dioceses, these into 119 governments. He multiplied the number and reduced the strength of the legions. Their number was raised from 31 to 132. Their strength was reduced from 6,000 men to 1,500 men. They were divided into two classes: *Palatines*, who were quartered in the chief towns of the Empire, and *Borderers*, who were stationed upon the frontiers. But the crowning reform of Constantine was that he completely dissociated the state from heathenism and paved the way for the complete triumph of Christianity. He recognized its bishops and clergy as privileged persons, he contributed largely toward its endowment, and conformed the jurisprudence of the Empire to its precepts and practices.

Under his protection took place (325 A.D.) the first general (*œcumenic*) Council of the Church at Nicæa (325), where the doctrine of Arius (*that the SON OF GOD is inferior to GOD THE FATHER*) was condemned, and the doctrine of the SON's essential equality with the FATHER asserted in the *Nicene Creed*. This question fills an important place in the history of the following centuries. Many of the barbarians embraced Arianism, and their subsequent hostility to the Romans, or to other barbarian tribes, may often be traced to this circumstance.

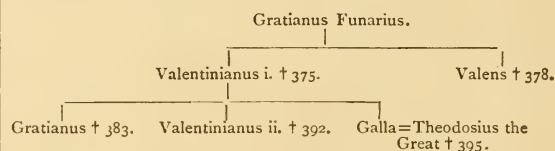
Constantine, whose religion was a curious medley of Christianity and paganism, was baptized in 336. Soon afterward he died (337), having reigned nearly thirty-one years.

Of Constantine's three sons, who divided the Empire among themselves, Constantius became at last sole Emperor. The Alamanni and Franks having invaded Gaul, he intrusted the defence of that province to his nephew Julian, who drove the Alamanni and Riparian Franks across the Rhine and assigned the Salian

Franks lands in Northern Gaul. The military reputation of Julian and his admirable administration of Gaul excited the envy of the Emperor, who was engaged in an unsuccessful war against the Persians, which he made a pretence for withdrawing several legions from him. These legions, however, instead of marching eastward, proclaimed Julian Emperor at Paris. Another civil war would have followed had not Constantius opportunely died (361) and left the throne open to his rival Julian (known as the *Apostate*). This last prince of the house of Constantine was a man of unquestionable ability and of nearly blameless moral character. A pagan from conviction, he hoped to bring about a reaction in favor of the heathen cult, which he wished restored in a purified form. This religious restoration was altogether a mistake and an anachronism; and it was well for the Empire that the brevity of his reign confined the time of suffering and of struggle within narrow limits.

In an expedition against the Persians, whose proposals of peace he had rejected, Julian crossed the Tigris and gained a decisive victory near Ctesiphon, but was mortally wounded on his return (363). He was succeeded by JOVIAN, a Christian, who concluded a thirty years' peace with Persia, and died on the homeward march (364).

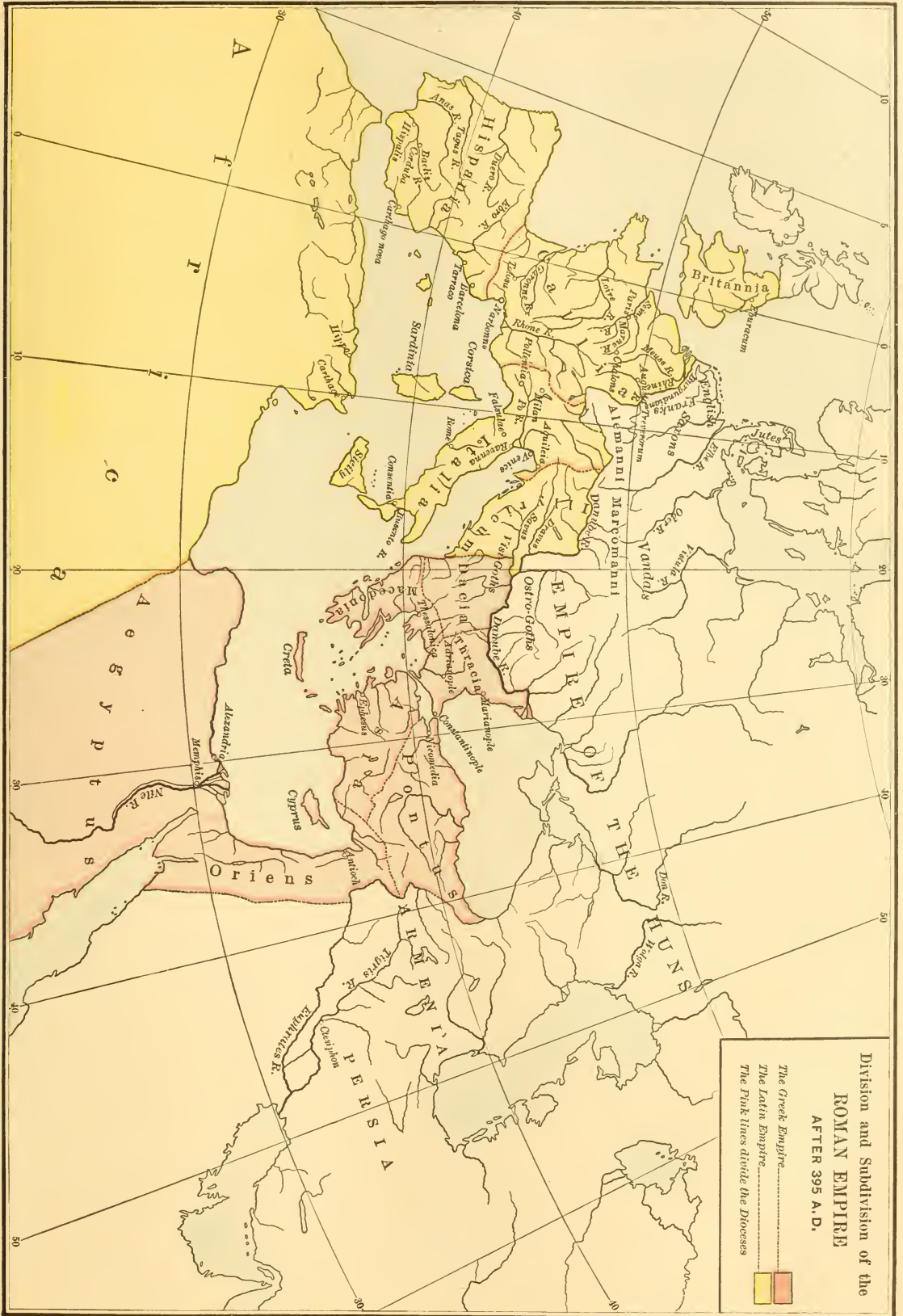
The House of Valentinian.—



On February 27, 364, the tenth day after the death of Jovian, the great officials of the Empire unanimously raised to the throne the Christian commander of the household troops, Valentinian. He at once appointed his brother Valens co-regent, to whom he assigned the prefecture of the East, the frontiers of which were invaded in almost every direction by the barbarians. Thenceforward the Empire continued to be divided into Eastern and Western, except in the last year of Theodosius (394), when the two portions were reunited.

Valentinian, whose reign was occupied by defending the West against barbarian invaders, associated (in 367) his eldest son Gratianus with him, who upon his father's death (in 375) acknowledged as co-regent for the West, his brother Valentinian II.

About this time the Huns and Alani attacked the Goths, who lived in Southern Russia. A portion of the Visi-Goths were permitted by Valens to cross the Danube and to settle in



Mœsia. But the severity of the Roman governor having driven them to revolt they forced their way into Thrace, traversed Macedonia as far as Thessaly, and defeated Valens near Adrianople (378), where the Emperor and two-thirds of his soldiers were slain.

Gratianus now created his brother-in-law Theodosius co-regent, who terminated the war with the Goths by assigning to whole tribes of that nation tracts of waste-lands in Mœsia, Thrace, Phrygia, and Lydia.

In 394, when the last male of the house of Valentinian had perished, the whole Empire was for the last time reunited under Theodosius the Great. After his death (395) the division of administration into an Eastern and Western section became a permanent division of the Empire.

The House of Theodosius the Great.—On the death of Theodosius the Great (395 A.D.) the Empire was divided between his two sons, Arcadius taking the Eastern provinces while Honorius took the Western provinces. Through the greater part of the fifth century the successors of Arcadius and of Honorius formed two distinct lines of emperors, of whom the Eastern reigned at Constantinople, the Western most commonly at Ravenna.

But as the dominions of each prince were alike Roman, the Eastern and Western emperors were still looked on in theory as imperial colleagues charged with the administration of a common Roman dominion. But this idea gradually disappeared. Relations of friendship between the governments are replaced by feelings of jealousy and dislike. The origin of this estrangement appears to have been the mutual jealousy and conflicting pretensions of Rufinus, the minister of the Eastern, and Stilicho, the general and guardian of the Western emperor. This jealousy cost Rufinus his life. The ill-will was brought to a head when the Visi-Goths, of Mœsia, having revolted under Alaric, were induced to remove to a region from which they threatened Italy.

Alaric the Goth.—When Alaric was made by Arcadius master-general of Eastern Illyricum (398 A.D.) it was felt at once that the West was menaced; and the dreadful invasions which followed were ascribed to the connivance of Arcadius, who, to save his own territories, had let the Goths loose upon his brother's.

The first invasion (402 A.D.) carried devastation over the rich plains of Northern Italy, but was effectually checked by Stilicho, who completely defeated Alaric in the battle of Pollentia (403 A.D.), and forced him to retire into Illyricum.

The second invasion (408 A.D.) was more

disastrous, because the Empire had lost the services of Stilicho. Alaric marched upon Rome, but consented to spare it on the receipt of an enormous ransom (409 A.D.). But being insulted during the following negotiations, he broke them off, and once more marched on Rome, which he entered as its master (410 A.D.). Honorius still refusing the terms of peace which Alaric offered, he advanced a third time upon Rome, which was now given to pillage. Nothing pagan escaped but that which found shelter under Christianity. For Alaric was, though a barbarian, a Christian.

Heathenism was buried under the ruins of heathen Rome (August, 410 A.D.). After ravaging Southern Italy, he was preparing to pass into Africa, when suddenly he fell ill and died at Consentia (410 A.D.).

Placidia.—His successor, Athaulf, had neither his talents nor his ambition. After ravaging Southern Italy for two years, he made peace with Honorius, accepted his sister, Placidia, in marriage, and withdrew his army from Italy into Southern Gaul and Spain (412 A.D.), from which he drove the German tribes who had invaded it. He called himself the officer of the Roman emperor, but he really founded a Gothic kingdom, which was the first regular settlement of the barbarians inside the Roman Empire. Honorius survived these troubles more than ten years. He died childless (423 A.D.) without making any arrangement for the succession. The throne was seized by John, secretary of the late emperor, but Theodosius II., the Emperor of the East, claimed the throne for his infant nephew, Valentinian, the son of Placidia and her second husband, Constantius. Being a child of no more than six years of age, he was placed (425 A.D.) under the guardianship of Placidia.

Family arrangements connected with the betrothment of Valentinian to Eudoxia, daughter of Theodosius II., had made over to the East the Western provinces of Pannonia, Noricum, and Illyris Barbara. By this union the Western Empire was practically confined to the three countries of Vindelicia, Rhætia, and Italy. For the precarious possessions in Gaul and Spain depended entirely on the good-will of the Visi-Goths. It was well that Goths and Romans were on good terms with each other, for they were soon attacked by their old enemies, the Huns.

Attila, King of the Huns, crossed the Rhine into Gaul, and spread devastation far and wide over the country. Romans and Visi-Goths united their arms against them. On the field of Chalons Attila was beaten (451 A.D.), and forced to retreat beyond the Rhine; and although he endeavored to retrieve his

failure, invading Italy (452 A.D.) he penetrated no farther south than the banks of the **Mincio**, near *Mantua*.

During this time abject terror reigned in **Rome**, where it was finally decided to try what effect an embassy might have. Two high officials were sent. Pope **LEO I.** volunteered to join them. Thanks to him the embassy won a peaceful and easy victory. It was the influence exerted over Attila by the saintly majesty of Leo, which induced him to sheathe the sword and to be satisfied with promise of tribute *when he might have grasped the reality of plunder*.

The success of the Pope, when even **Ætius**, the sole defender of Rome's waning fortunes, confessed that he saw only ruin before him, profoundly stirred the hearts of the Roman people. The events of the year 452 contributed enormously to raise the **Vatican** above the **Palatine**, and to give the Pope the *moral*, if not yet the *political*, **sovereignty**.

Attila survived this failure only one year, and his death (453 A.D.) delivered the West from the peril of becoming a prey to the Tatar hordes.

The great Hunnic Empire vanished with its founder. He had himself built nothing that endured, though indirectly he had contributed to three of the greatest changes in Europe :

I. The making of England by the forced withdrawal of the legions from Britain.

II. The establishment of the Papal Supremacy.

III. The foundation of Venice.

On the death of Attila **VALENTINIAN** considered that he had no longer use for **Ætius**, and murdered him. This foul crime led directly to the assassination of **Valentinian** (455), who was murdered by three former guardsmen of the **Patrician**.

There was no general to succeed **Ætius**, as there was no member of the **Theodosian** dynasty to succeed **Valentinian**, who died without male offspring. With him the house of **Theodosius** came to an end in the male line.

Valentinian was succeeded by **PETRONIUS MAXIMUS**, a wealthy member of the noble **Anician** house.

GAISERIC, THE VANDAL. During the Augustan age we first hear of the **Vandals**, a gigantic race living a short distance from the southeastern shore of the Baltic. About a century later (100 A.D.) they occupy the upper valley of the Oder. **Marcus Aurelius** found them in **Pannonia**, where he forced them to become allies of the Roman Empire (174). For more than two centuries they remained in **Pannonia**, when they were forced westward by the general upheaval caused by **Alaric's** inva-

sions. In 406 we find them still in **Pannonia**, in 439 they are firmly settled in **Carthage**. Thirty-three years, the ordinary length of a generation, had brought them from Eastern Europe to Northern Africa.

During the journey they had ravaged southern Gaul, and set up a short-lived kingdom in Southern Spain which still perpetuates their name (**Andalusia—Vandalusia**).

Boniface, the governor of Roman Africa, invited **Gaiseric**, king of the Vandals, to settle in Northern Africa to assist him against his enemy **Ætius**. He saw his mistake only when it was too late. In vain he sought to persuade **Gaiseric** to leave the fruitful land into which he had invited him. After seven years of desolating warfare, peace was concluded between **Gaiseric** and the empire, the Vandals retaining Roman Africa. **Gaiseric** had, however, to promise to leave unmolested the rich city of **Carthage**. This promise was broken on October 19, 439, when **Gaiseric** entered **Carthage** and made all the vast wealth of the African capital his own. He dated his reign from this conquest.

The internal dissensions following the death of **Ætius** and **Valentinian III.**, seemed to **Gaiseric** a good opportunity for attacking Italy.

The Vandal fleet reached the mouth of the Tiber in the early days of June, 455. Three days later the Vandals entered Rome. For fourteen days they abode in the city and plundered it thoroughly,

During the sack of Rome **AVITUS** was raised to the imperial throne, and sent the Suevian general **Ricimer** against the Vandal fleet, then in the Sicilian waters. **Ricimer** crippled them for many years to come.

FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE. Henceforth until his death (472), the conqueror of the Vandals, **RICIMER THE PATRICIAN** was the virtual ruler of the Western Empire. Two years after his death, the **Pannonian ORESTES** aspired to take **Ricimer's** place. But **Orestes'** tenure of power was brief. When the demand of the mercenaries for a third of the lands of Italy, was refused by **Orestes**, they rose in revolt, and on his defeat and death they proclaimed their leader **ODOACER** the **Rugian**, *King of the Mercenaries in Italy*.

The Senate of Rome sent to the Eastern Emperor, **Zeno**, to say that one emperor was enough, that Italy would have him for its emperor, and that **Odoacer** would act as his deputy. **Zeno** accordingly appointed **Odoacer** as **Patrician in Italy**.

This emancipation of Italy and the Western provinces from direct imperial control has rightly been regarded as the opening of a new epoch.

HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

FROM THEODORIC THE GREAT TO CHARLES THE GREAT.

ROMANS AND TEUTONS.

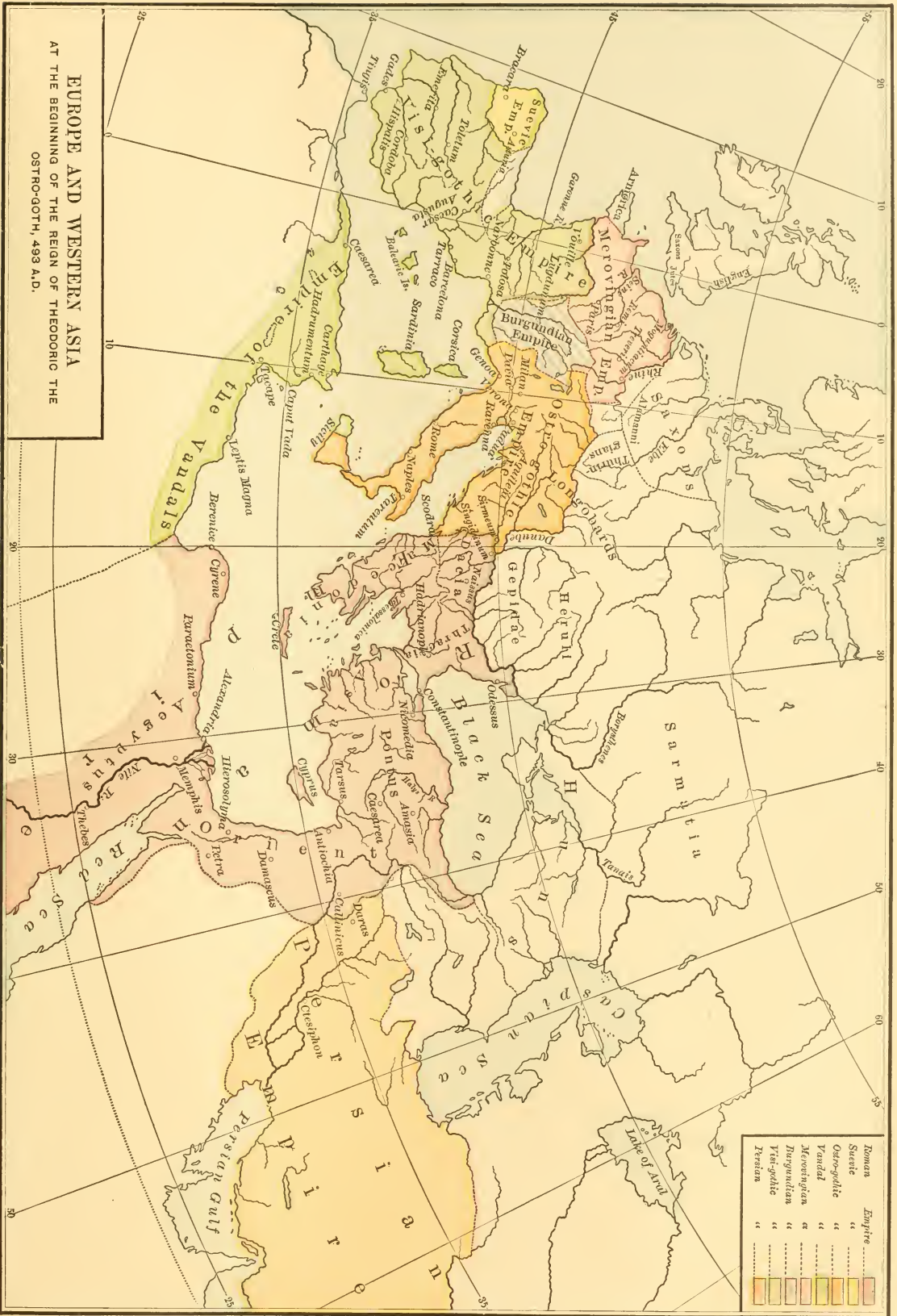
Theodoric the Great.—Since the death of Attila (453) the Ostro-Goths had re-established their ancient independence. They now inhabited the country between the Danube and the Save. They received tribute from the Emperors of the East, and in return gave them hostages for the maintenance of peace. Among these hostages was the young Theodoric, the son of King Theudmir, who derived the same advantage from the Byzantine civilization which Philip of Macedon had drawn from the lessons of the conqueror of Leuctra. Theudmir on his death-bed declared Theodoric to be the most worthy, who accordingly was chosen to be his successor. The Emperor Zeno spared nothing in order to conciliate the young prince, and at length came to the resolution of formally surrendering Italy to him. Immediately the Ostro-Goths set out, with all their herds, from the Danube and the Save and approached the confines of Italy. Odoacer was three times defeated by Theodoric, first near Aquileia, then near Verona, and lastly near Ravenna. He sought a refuge behind the strong walls of Ravenna, where he was besieged three years by Theodoric. At length, compelled by famine and the clamors of the people, he made a treaty with Theodoric by which they were to rule jointly. But after a few days Odoacer was murdered by his conqueror.

Italy and the lands to the north of the Alps and the Adriatic now became in substance, though not in name, an Ostro-Gothic kingdom, embracing the former dioceses of Italy and Western Illyricum, besides the coast of the present Provence. The seat of this Gothic dominion was usually at Ravenna, although Theodoric resided quite as often in Pavia and in Verona (Bern). Hence, in the hero-romances he is celebrated as Dietrich von Bern.

The Teutonic Kingdoms.—Thus, about 500 A.D. the Western dominions of Rome have

practically fallen away from the Roman Empire. The whole West is under the rule of Teutonic kings. The Frank has become supreme in Northern Gaul, without losing his ancient hold on Western and Central Germany. The Visi-Goth reigns in Spain and Aquitaine; the Burgundian reigns in the lands between the Rhone and the Alps, and the Ostro-Goth in Italy. But the countries of the European mainland, though cut off from Roman political dominion, are far from being cut off from Roman influences. The Teutonic settlers, if conquerors, are also disciples. Their rulers are everywhere Christian; the Franks are even Catholics. Africa, under the Arian Vandal, is far more utterly cut off from the traditions of Rome than the lands ruled either by the Catholic Frank or by the Arian Goth. To the north of the Franks lie the independent tribes of Germany, still untouched by any Roman influence. They are beginning to find themselves new homes in Britain. The first place in this Teutonic West is occupied by Theodoric the Great. Humanity, temperance, and prudence elevated him above all other barbarian kings. By family alliances he became the relative and friend, by his power and wisdom the protector, of all the kings of the West.

The Visi-Gothic kingdom, which stretched in 507 from the Pillars of Hercules to the Loire and Rhone, was in that year attacked by the Franks under Clovis. Conquered at Vouillé, on the Clain, it seemed that the end had come, when Theodoric came to the rescue of his grandson, Amalaric. The Franks were defeated near Arles, which victory secured to the Visi-Goths not only their Spanish conquests, but enabled them to maintain their control of Septimania (the coast between the Rhone and the Pyrenees). Theodoric united a part of Southern Gaul to the kingdom of the Ostro-Goths, and undertook the government of that part which the Visi-Goths retained, as well as of their Spanish conquests,



as the guardian of their king, his grandson, Amalaric, and retained it till his death (526), which first severed the connection of the two Gothic kingdoms.

Justinian.—After the death of Theodoric, his daughter, Amalasuntha, became regent in the Ostro-Gothic kingdom for her son Athalaric, who died young (534). Amalasuntha now associated with herself, as co-regent, her cousin Theodat, who murdered her. This murder was the beginning of the end of the Ostro-Gothic kingdom. At that time the throne of Constantinople was occupied by the famous Justinian, to whom it seemed the first duty of a Roman emperor to restore the Roman Empire to its ancient extent. Lost provinces were won back in two continents. The Vandal kingdom in Africa (429-534) extended in 500 over the whole of the northern coast of Africa, from the Atlantic to Cyrenaica, including the Balearic Islands, Sardinia, Corsica, and the western part of Sicily. They were the greatest naval power in the Mediterranean. But after the death of Genseric (477) their power rapidly declined. Justinian thought the time had come to reunite Latin Africa with the Empire. A short war under Belisarius won Africa back. About the same time the south of Spain was reconquered, and, after the murder of Amalasuntha, Justinian thought that Italy also might be won back from the Ostro-Goths. And so it was, after a war which lasted from 535 to 553, first under Belisarius, and then under Narses.

Thus Justinian reigned over both the Old and the New Rome, and the Empire again stretched from the ocean to the Euphrates, round the greater part of the Mediterranean. But it collapsed soon after his death (565).

Alboin.—In 568 the Longobards under their king, Alboin, climbed the Alps and conquered the valley of the Po, which is still called after them, Lombardy. He took Pavia, after a siege of three years, and made it the seat of government. His valor as a soldier was equalled by his justice and moderation as a sovereign. From this time part of Italy was held by the Lombards, and part by the emperors. The emperor kept the three great Islands (Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica), and a part of Southern Italy; also Rome and Ravenna, and the country about them, and the Venetian Islands. These dominions were ruled by an exarch, or governor, who lived at Ravenna.

FRANKS, BURGUNDIANS, AND GOTHES.

Clovis.—In the beginning of the fifth century the defences of Gaul gave way and were carried at all points. Sixty thousand Bur-

gundians established themselves between the Rhone and the Alps (406-411); two or three hundred thousand Visi-Goths occupied the southern part (412-450); and the Franks invaded and settled in the north (481-500). These Franks were not a people, but a confederation, which was divided into two great divisions; the Riparian Franks who occupied both banks (ripæ) of the Lower Rhine, and the Salic Franks, who lived near the Lower Isala or Sala in Meergau or Meruwe (the sea district), hence called Merovingians. These Salic Franks gradually occupied Northern Gaul as far as the Loire. Clovis (Louis), chief of the petty tribe of the Franks of Tournay, excelled in gathering about himself warriors of all the Frankish tribes. With them he defeated the Roman governor Syagrius at Soissons (485). Subsequently Clovis was invested with the insignia of the consulship by the Emperor Anastasius, who thereby acknowledged him as the legal representative of the imperial authority in Northern Gaul (486).

Ten years later (496), when numerous bands of Alamanni threatened to pass the Rhine, the Franks flew to arms to oppose them. In similar emergencies the different tribes were accustomed to unite under the bravest chief, and Clovis reaped the honor of the common victory (which was *not* at Tolbiac). This was the occasion of his embracing Catholicism, the worship of Roman Gaul, having vowed during the battle to worship the God of his wife Clotilda if he gained the day. Three thousand of his warriors followed his example. Assured, thenceforth, of the support of the Catholic clergy throughout Gaul, they planned to take away the rest of the country from the heretical Visi-Goths and Burgundians, the cruel oppressors of the Catholics.

The union of the two divisions of the Frankish Confederacy, and the overthrow of the Alamanni, had made the Franks, under Clovis, the ruling people not only of North Gaul, but also of Central Germany.

Their territory thus took in both lands which had been part of the Empire and lands that had never been such. This was a special characteristic of the Frankish settlement, and one which influenced the whole of their later history. There were Frankish lands to the East which never had been Roman (Teutonic Francia). There were lands in Northern Gaul which remained practically Roman under the Frankish dominion (Latin Francia). Their dominion was fated to be the most lasting of the Teutonic kingdoms founded within the precincts of the Empire, for the obvious reason that while the Goths in Spain and the



Vandals in Africa were isolated Teutonic settlers in a Roman land, the Franks in Gaul were strengthened by the unbroken Teutonic mainland at their back. Another reason was that the Franks alone received Christianity from the Latin Church, the dominant religion of the West. The Catholic Franks everywhere found the Gallic clergy ardent auxiliaries, who guided and lighted their progress, and gained the country over to them beforehand. This union of Clovis with the clergy of the conquered Gauls threatened to be fatal to the Burgundians. Their king, Gondebaut, humbled himself to save his throne. He promised to turn Catholic, gave the Catholic clergy his children to educate, and wound up these concessions by becoming tributary to Clovis. Alaric II., King of the Visi-Goths, entertaining a similar dread of Clovis, endeavored in vain to propitiate him. Clovis spoke him fairly, but soon after he called upon his Franks to free the Catholic Gauls from the tyranny of the heretical Goths. So zealous a defender of the Catholic Church could not fail to find her a powerful help toward victory. The Goths were conquered at Vouillé (507), and Southern Gaul obeyed Clovis. By this victory he increased his power so much that he overshadowed completely the other small Frankish kings, and, after having isolated them, in a manner, by taking away their soldiers, he was able with impunity to have them assassinated one after the other, or to kill them treacherously with his own hands. The church, preoccupied by the idea of unity, applauded their deaths. Thus Clovis became the only chief of the Franks.

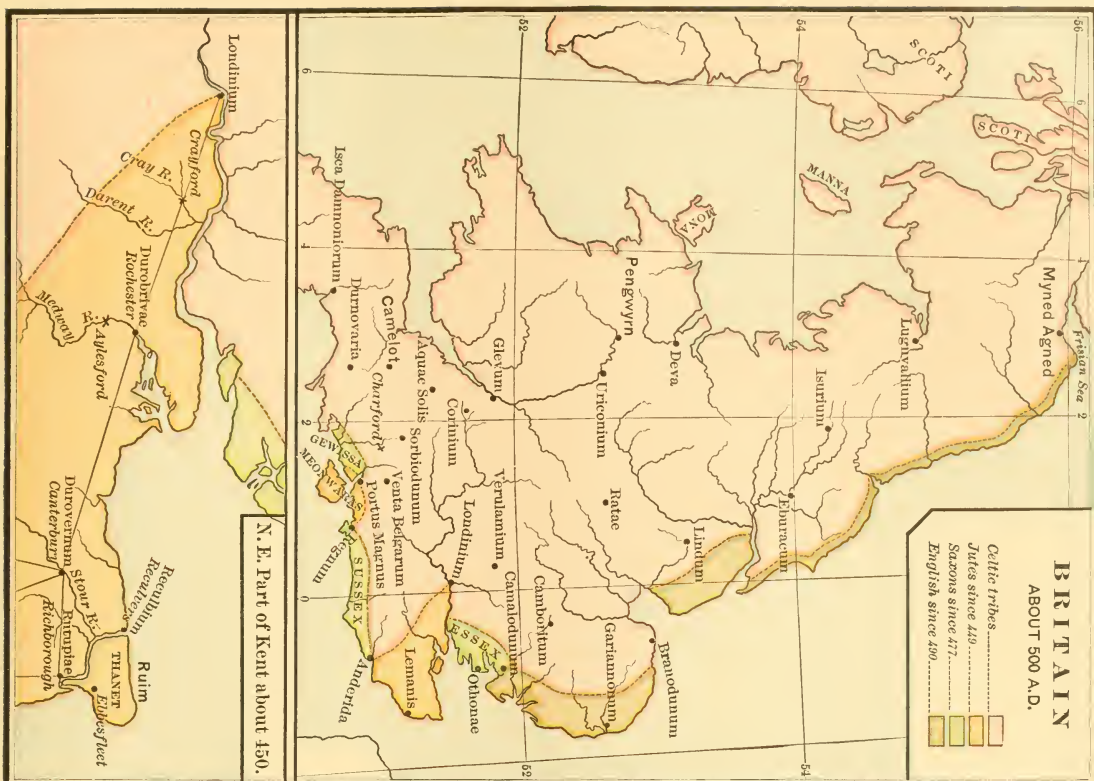
The Successors of Clovis.—If he had had but one successor after his death (511), Gaul would have been more tranquil, and would not have been desolated by war, as was the case; but he left four sons, who divided the country between themselves; and again emulation arose among these kings as to who should have the most warriors, and, consequently, who should engage in the most wars: wars against the Thuringians (conquered by Theodoric in 531), against the Burgundians, whose kingdom was destroyed by Childebert and Chlotar in 532, and, lastly, wars between themselves. Chlotar, left sole King of Gaul in 558, was in 561 succeeded by his four sons. After the death of Charibert, in 567, his inheritance was divided among his brothers, and this triple division was alone henceforth of historical importance. Sigebert received Austrasia, with the capital at Metz (sometimes at Rheims); Chilperic, Neustria, with the capital at Soissons; and Gontran, Burgundy, with Orleans as capital, in both of which latter divisions the

mass of the population was Romano-Celtic, or Romanic.

ENGLISH, SAXONS, AND CELTS.

The English Conquest.—Britain remained a province of the Roman Empire for more than three hundred years, but throughout these centuries the province was wasted from time to time by inroads of the unconquered tribes of the North, whose attacks grew more formidable as Rome grew weaker in her struggle against the barbarians, who beset her on every border. At last the Empire was forced to withdraw its troops from Britain (410) and leave the province to defend itself against its numerous foes—pirates who attacked its shores, and highland tribes (Picts) who penetrated to the heart of the country. It was to repulse the Picts that Britain sought the aid of some bands of Jutes, who landed under their chieftain Hengist, at Ebbesfleet, on the Isle of Thanet (449), and obtained lands in reward for their assistance. But the Jutes themselves soon became as great a danger as the Picts whom they had repulsed; as quarrels arose with Britons they called for help from their fatherland, and bands of Jutes, Saxons, and Englishmen descended one after another on the shores of Britain, to begin a work of conquest which at last made the land their own. But this conquest proved to be a most arduous task, for the mere forest belts which remained over vast stretches of country formed mighty barriers, which were everywhere strong enough to check the advance of an invader, and often strong enough to arrest it.

Instead of quartering themselves quietly on subjects who were glad to buy peace by obedience and tribute, Englishmen and Saxons had to make every inch of Britain their own by hard fighting. Instead of mastering the country in a few great battles, they had to tear it bit by bit from its defenders in a weary and endless strife. How slow the work of English conquest was may be seen from the fact that it took nearly thirty years to win Kent alone, and more than a century to complete the conquest of Southern Britain, while the conquest of the bulk of the island was only wrought out after more than two centuries of bitter warfare. But it was just through the length of the struggle that of all the Teutonic conquests the English was the most thorough and complete. It was a sheer dispossession of the conquered people. They swept away all traces of the earlier state of things. As far as such a process is possible, they slew or drove out the older inhabitants. They kept their Teutonic religion and Teutonic language, and were thus able to grow up as a new Teutonic nation in



NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names:



their new home, without any important intermixture with the earlier inhabitants.

In the conquered part of Britain, Christianity wholly disappeared. When missionaries at last made their way into its bound, there is no record of there having been found a single Christian in the whole country. What they found was a purely heathen land, where homestead and boundary, and the very days of the week bore the names of gods who had displaced Christ. It is hardly possible to conceive a stronger proof that the conquest of Britain had been a real displacement of the British people.

It was not, however, the island of Britain which Englishman and Saxon had mastered—it was that portion of it which lay within the bounds of the Roman Empire. Even in its widest advance, English life stopped abruptly at the Frith of Forth and Clyde, as Roman life had stopped there before it, while it penetrated but slowly and imperfectly into the western and northwestern districts of Britain, as Rome had penetrated but slowly and imperfectly into them.

The Jutes, who had come first (449), gradually spread themselves over the mainland of Kent, capturing the great Roman fortress of Durobrivæ (Rochester), and coast land as far as London. A second Jutish horde established itself in the Isle of Wight and on the opposite shore of Hampshire.

Next came the Saxons (477). Ælla, with his three sons, is said to have landed on the south coast. Here, between the sea and the Andreds Weald, he founded the colony of the South-Saxons, or Sussex.

In 495 Cerdic and Cynric led another Saxon horde, the Gewissa, who, after having been reinforced in 514, within five years conquered the whole coast between the Andreds Weald and the Lower Avon. Their colony was that of the West-Saxons, or Wessex.

It was in the struggle against Cerdic that the British king ARTHUR acquired his fame. At Camelot, in Somersetshire, his capital, he gathered round him the bravest of his followers, who were known as the *Knights of the Round Table*; and for twenty-four years he fought bravely for his kingdom, and conquered the Saxons in twelve battles. He is said to have been mortally wounded in a war with his rebellious nephew, Modred, and buried at Glastonbury (about 555 A.D.). Of the beginnings of the East-Saxon community in Essex, and of the Middle-Saxon in Middlesex, we know little, even by tradition. The Saxons undoubtedly came over in large numbers; but a considerable body of their fellow-tribesmen still remained upon the continent.

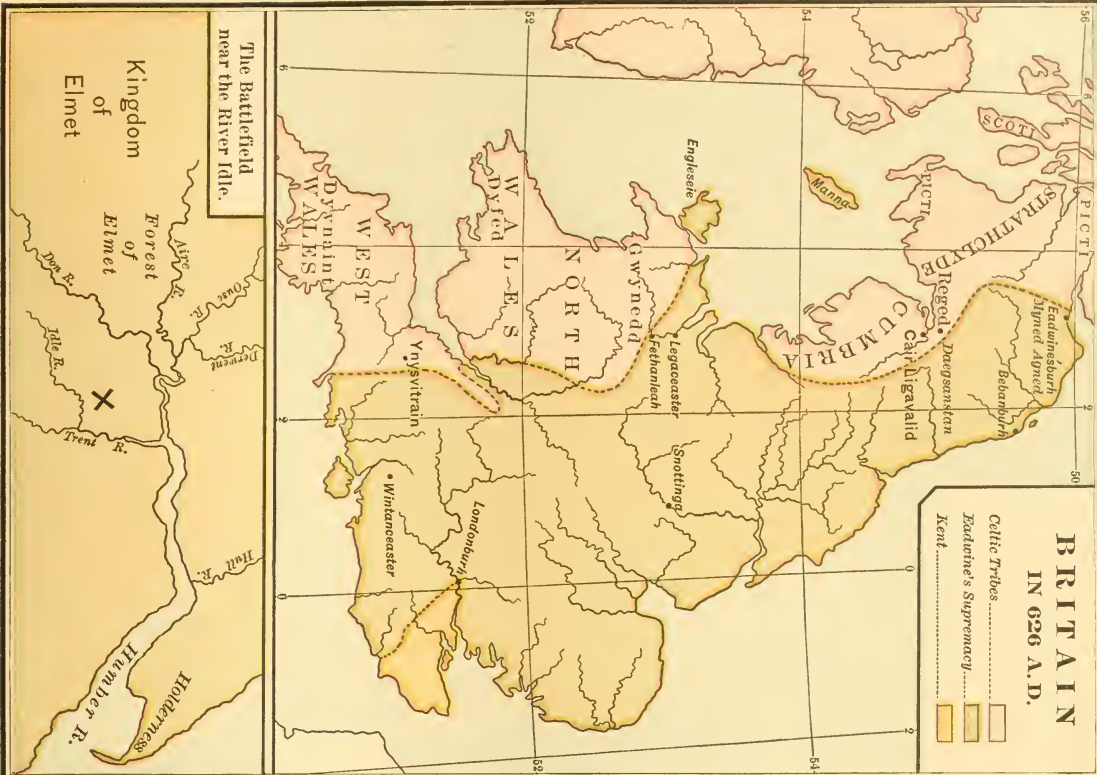
The English, on the other hand, apparently migrated in a body, and took for their share of Britain the nearest east-coast. Their settlements extended from the Forth to Essex, and were subsequently subdivided into Bernicia, Deira, and East Anglia.

Thus the earliest England consisted of a mere strip of Teutonic coast, divided into tiny chieftainships, and girding round half of the eastern and southern shores of a still Celtic Britain. Its area was discontinuous, and its inland boundaries toward the back country were vaguely defined. Coastwise, the rivers and fens were their limits against one another. This oldest insular England is marked off into at least eight separate colonies, by the Forth, the Tyne, the Humber, the Wash, the Stour, the Thames, the Andreds Weald, and the Chichester tidal swamp region.

Northumbria.—During the last quarter of the sixth century the strife of Englishman and Briton sinks into comparative unimportance. The fluctuations of victory, and consequently of boundaries, between the English kingdoms are quite as marked as the warfare between the English and the Britons. Among the settlements of the invaders, small and great, eight stand out as of special importance. They are: Kent, Sussex (South Saxony), Wessex (West Saxony), Essex (East Saxony), East Anglia, Mercia, Bernicia, and Deira. There was, however, a constant tendency among these eight states to unite in groups. Bernicia and Deira formed Northumbria, which reached from the Forth to the Humber. Wessex stretched from the line of Watling Street to the coast of the Channel; and between these was already roughly sketched out the great kingdom of Mid-Britain. The gathering of the invaders into these last-named kingdoms seemed the natural prelude to a fusion of them into a single England. It is indeed the effort to bring about this union that forms the history of the English people for the next 200 years, and that gives meaning and interest to the long struggles of Northumbrian, Mercian, and West-Saxon kings to establish their supremacy over the general mass of Englishmen.

In this struggle Northumbria took the lead.

In 592 there reigned over that kingdom a most brave and ambitious king, Æthelfrith, the son of Æthelric, who from the moment of his accession took up the work of conquest with ruthless vigor. His advance became so threatening as to unite in one vast confederacy the whole force of the countries along his border. Hosts of Scots and Britons marched to the rampart of the Catrail, which formed the boundary between Northumbria and Strathclyde, and here, at Dægsa's Stone (603),



NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: Modern Names.



they were met and routed by Æthelfrith. This dissolved the confederacy which had threatened Northumbria, and, while the Scots withdrew to their far-off fortresses, the Britons themselves lay at the conqueror's mercy. Three years later Æthelfrith rounded the Peakland (Derbyshire) and marched from the Upper Trent upon the Roman city of Chester. The Britons who came to the rescue were conquered, Chester fell (606), while the district over which the wasted city had ruled became Northumbrian. This victory of Chester divided the Welsh power in the North as that of Deorham had divided it in the South. Henceforth, the Northumbrians bore rule from sea to sea, from the mouth of the Humber to the mouths of the Mersey and the Dee. The Eastern half of England was now divided between Northumbria and Kent. The inevitable struggle between them was averted by the sudden death of Æthelfrith. Marching, in 617, against Readwald, King of East Anglia (who had thrown off the overlordship of Kent after Æthelberht's death in 616) he perished in a defeat at the river Idle.

The fall of Æthelfrith broke up, for the moment, the kingdom which his sword had held together. On his defeat Deira rose against her Bernician masters, and again called the line of Ælla, in its representative, Eadwine, to its throne.

Eadwine, however, was as resolute to hold the two realms together as Æthelfrith had been; and he was no sooner welcomed back by his people of Deira than he marched northward to make the whole of Northumbria his own. As it had been originally created by the subjection of Deira to the King of the Bernicians, so it was now held together by the subjection of Bernicia to the King of the Deirans. Under this Eadwine the greatness of Northumbria reached its height. He was supreme over Britain as no king of English blood had been before. Northward, his frontier reached the Forth, and was guarded by a city which bore his name—Edinburgh (Eadwine's burgh). Westward, he was master of Chester, and the fleet he equipped there subdued the Isles of Anglesey and Man. South of the Humber he was owned as overlord by all the tribes of the invaders save Kent.

He displayed a genius for civil government, which shows how completely the mere age of conquest had passed away. With him began the English proverb so often applied to after kings: "A woman with her babe might walk scathless from sea to sea in Eadwine's day."

Conversion of the English.—Through the endeavors of his wife, Æthelburh, Eadwine and his court became Christians. But this

conversion shook the Northumberland power over Mid-Britain, and enabled Penda to seize the supremacy over its English tribes, who were frantically devoted to the religion of their ancestors.

East Anglia, relying on the protection of Northumbria, still defied Penda, who, knowing himself no match for Northumbria, allied himself, in 633, with Cadwalla, the Welsh King of Gwynedd. The Welsh and Mercian host met the Northumbrians at Heathfield, and utterly destroyed them. Eadwine himself, and his son Osfrith, were slain. Penda and Cadwalla "fared thence, and undid all Northumbria." The death of Eadwine and his son left the throne open for the house of Æthelfrith, whose place Eadwine had taken. Oswald, son of Æthelfrith, again united Deira and Bernicia under his own rule. Oswald was a Christian, but he had learned his Christianity, not from the Roman missionaries, but from the Irish missionaries at Iona, or Hii (near Skye), among whom he had spent his exile.

While the Celtic Church was making rapid strides through the North, Roman missionaries were busy in the South. The Kings of Wessex and East Anglia both embraced the Christian faith. But Mercia remained as heathenish as ever. Oswald tried, in 641, to free Christian East Anglia from Penda's grasp; but he was defeated and slain at the Maserfeld. For a few years after this victory Penda stood supreme in Britain. Deira in the North, Wessex in the South, had to acknowledge his supremacy, and threw off the Christian faith.

But in 655 Penda made a last attempt against Northumbria, which he had harried year after year, and was met by Oswiu, Oswald's successor, at Winwidfield, near Leeds. The Christians were successful, and Penda was slain. His son, Pæda, the Christian ealdorman of the Middle English, succeeded him, and the whole of Mercia became Christian after the Celtic type.

Heathendom was now fairly vanquished. The next trial of strength must clearly be between Rome and Iona. To allay the discord, King Oswiu summoned (664) a synod at Streonshalch (Whitby). It decided in favor of Rome. This decision not only gave England a share in the religious unity of Western Christendom—it gave her a religious unity at home.

Greatness of Mercia.—The eighth century is taken up with the greatness of Mercia, which, having risen to the second place under Penda and Wulfhere, now assumed the first position among the Teutonic kingdoms. Æthelbald (716-755) was one of the most powerful Mercian kings. Since 726 he made con-



NOTE: Celtic Names: Latin Names: Old English: Modern Names.



tinual raids into Wessex, till the siege and capture of the royal town of Somerton (733) made an end to the independence of the Gewissas. For twenty years the overlordship of Mercia was recognized by all Britain south of the Humber. It was at the head of the forces, not of Mercia only, but of East Anglia and Kent, as well as of the West Saxons, that Æthelbald marched against the Celts on his western frontier. For twelve years he was quite successful; but in 754 a general rising forced him to call his whole strength to the field. He met the enemy at Burford. A sudden panic seized the Mercian king, and the supremacy of Mid-Britain passed forever away as Æthelbald fled, first of his army, from the field. Not only Wessex had been freed by this battle, but Æthelbald's own throne seems to have been shaken, for in the next year he was murdered. He was succeeded, after a short interval, by Offa (758-796), whose reign of nearly forty years is the first settled period in English history. Offa, on his accession, found Mercia confined to narrow bounds.

Like Northumbria before, she ceased making war upon her Teutonic kindred, and turned upon the Welsh. Offa drove the Prince of Powys from his capital, Pengwyrn, whose older name he replaced by Scrobsbyrg (Town in the Scrub—Shrewsbury). Carrying his ravages into the heart of Wales, he conquered the land between the Severn and the Wye. His dyke from the Dee to the Severn, and the Wye, marked the new limits of the Welsh and English borders. It still bears the name of Offa's Dyke.

Under Offa, Mercia sunk into virtual isolation. At his death (759) it seemed that the threefold division of England was to be permanent. Northumbria had definitely sheered off into provincial isolation, and the revival of Wessex completed that parting of the land between three states of nearly equal power out of which it seemed impossible that unity could come.

Rise of Wessex.—Since their overthrow at Faddiley (597), the West Saxons had been weakened by anarchy and civil war. So terribly had their strength been broken that even the Celts had in turn assailed them, while both Northumbria and Mercia had attacked and defeated them. But, in spite of these losses, the real strength of the Gewissas had been in no way lessened. Their defeats had been simply owing to their internal divisions, not in the body of the people itself, but simply in their kingly house. Each fragment of Celtic ground, as it was won, seems to have been made into an under-kingdom for some one of the royal kin; and it was the continual strug-

gle of these under-kings against the headking which distracted the energies of the Gewissas. But whenever these causes of distraction were removed, each interval of order showed that the warlike vigor of the people was as great as of old.

When Ceadwalla, in 685, gathered all the Gewissas beneath his sway, he soon again set up the West-Saxon supremacy over Sussex, and made the Isle of Wight his own, after a massacre of its inhabitants. Failing in his attack on Kent, he abdicated (688), and went on a pilgrimage to Rome. His successor, Ina, conquered Kent in 694. This conquest carried Ina's rule along the whole southern coast from the river Axe to the Isle of Thanet. Even London owned Ina as its lord. In 710 he attacked Dyrnaint, then ruled by King Geraint, and tore from it the valley of the Tone. He secured his conquest by the foundation of the fortress of Taunton (the Town on the Tone).

But in 726, after thirty-three years of a glorious reign, the increasing anarchy made Ina throw down his crown in disgust and withdraw from Wessex, to die a pilgrim at Rome. Æthelbald, King of Mercia, profited by the increasing anarchy which followed Ina's withdrawal. In 733 Wessex acknowledged Æthelbald's supremacy, and for twenty-one years it was ruled by his thegns. Æthelbald's defeat at Burford (754) restored the independence of Wessex; but the battle of Bensington (779) confined Wessex to the South of the Thames. This battle seemed to settle the division of Teutonic Britain into three equal powers, Wessex being now as firmly planted south of the Thames as Northumbria north of the Humber. But in 786 their progress was stayed by a contention for the throne between Beorhtric and Ecgerht. Banished from Wessex, Ecgerht took refuge with Charlemagne, and there he learned to understand the rising statesmanship of the Frankish race, and of the restored Roman Empire. The death of his enemy, Beorhtric, 802, gave him the throne of Wessex. For twenty years Ecgerht was engaged in consolidating his ancestral dominion and conquering the last fragment of Celtic dominion in the southwest.

While Wessex was thus consolidating the South, Mercia sunk helplessly into the anarchy from which the southern kingdom had emerged, and when, notwithstanding this, the Mercian King, Beornwulf, in 825, attacked the West-Saxons, at Ellandun, he was totally defeated, and Kent and Essex acknowledged the supremacy of the conqueror. Three years later (828) the West-Saxon army crossed the Thames. The Mercian king fled helplessly before it, and the realm of Penda and Offa

bowed without a struggle to its conqueror. He now marched northward against the Northumbrians. Its thegns met Egberht on their border, at Dore, in Derbyshire, and owned him as their overlord. Thus, the West-Saxon kingdom absorbed all the others. But though all the Teutonic states in Britain had submitted to Egberht's sway, he had not become a king of England. His conquests had given him a supremacy over his fellow-kings, by which they and their people were bound to pay him tribute and to follow him in war. But their life remained in all other matters as independent as before. It was only by long and patient effort that this vague supremacy of the West-Saxon kings could develop into a national sovereignty, and the effort after such a sovereignty had hardly begun, when it was suddenly broken by the coming of the Danes.

THE ARABIC ASCENDENCY.

Rise of Islam.—During the seventh century, a new nation, that of the Arabs, now became dominant in a large part of the lands which had been part of the Roman Empire, as well as in lands far beyond its boundaries. The scattered tribes of Arabia were first gathered together into a single power by Mohammed the Prophet. When he began his career at Mecca (622) Arabia was hardly known to the rest of the world. Fifty years after his death (632) his followers were already ruling the land from the Indus in the East, and the Caucasus in the North, to the coasts of the Atlantic in the West. The world never before saw a quicker or more complete invasion. Mohammed had succeeded in setting the ardent imaginations of his countrymen on fire with the idea of a holy war. In short, vigorous sentences he preached to them the greatness and power of one Almighty God. Man could alone be just in that he learned God's will from the Prophet and then fulfilled the Prophet's ordinances. Thus, his mission from the first was not one of instruction, but of subjugation; unbelievers were rebels, who were to be smitten with the edge of the sword, and forced to conform to his doctrines or to pay tribute. War necessarily arose out of the first principles of his religion; and no sooner was he acknowledged in Mecca than he sent threatening admonitions to the Persian king and the Byzantine emperor (630). The scorn with which they answered the unknown fanatic was met by the most furious attacks; neither Roman nor Persian troops were able to withstand the masses of brave men which, with the rapidity of lightning, inexhaustible, and with exulting contempt of death, spread

in torrents over the country. They had no other thought than fanaticism for the Caliph, no other delight than war against the infidel, no other hope than entrance into Paradise.

"They dwell," says one of their poets, "beneath the shadow of their lances, and cook their food upon the ashes of the conquered towns."

The Orthodox Caliphs.—This impulse, communicated to the Arabian race by the enthusiasm of Mohammed, did not cease with his death. The whole nation had been roused to an unexampled pitch of religious zeal and were eager to continue the work which he had begun. Accordingly the reigns of the caliphs—as the successors of Mohammed were called—were one long series of invasions, wars, and conquests, undertaken for the express purpose of adding new countries to the Mohammedan Empire. The first four caliphs, all near relatives and companions of the prophet, were :

ABU-BEKR (632-634), the father-in-law of Mohammed, who collected the prophet's sayings into a book called the Koran. Under him Syria and Mesopotamia were subdued.

OMAR (634-643), another father-in-law of Mohammed. Under him Egypt was conquered, and the whole of the northern coast of Africa was overrun.

Othman (643-656), a son-in-law of Mohammed, who conquered Persia.

Ali (656-661), another son-in-law of Mohammed (husband of Fatima). During this period the seat of the Caliphate was the town of Kufa on the Euphrates, Mecca, however, retaining its pre-eminence as the holy city, whither all true Moslems were to go in pilgrimage and toward which they were to turn in prayer.

The Civil War.—Ali was scarcely placed in the Caliphate before he was forced to send an army against Moawyah, the governor of Syria, whose claims to the supreme power were supported by Amru, the conqueror of Egypt. Three men, with a view to removing the causes of discord, planned the murder of Ali, Moawyah, and Amru. The last two escaped the fate intended for them, but Ali fell a victim to the conspiracy. Moawyah was now recognized as Caliph. To secure his power he caused the murder of the two sons of Ali, Hassan and Hosain. These youths were ever regarded as martyrs by the friends of the house of Ali, the Shiites. They are a party who neither acknowledge Ali's predecessors nor his successors as lawful Caliphs; but they pay homage to a sacred family descended from him, of which the last individual Mohammed Montatar (born 868

A.D.) is supposed by them still to survive in concealment, that he may appear as sovereign in the end of time. Of this persuasion is Persia. During the whole of June the Shiites keep fast in honor of Ali and his sons Hassan and Hosain; they lament them by night, when theatrical exhibitions are performed, representing their battles and assassination; effigies of their bodies, stained with blood, are carried in procession through the streets, and every Shiite learns to execrate the Sunnites, the enemies of Ali. Of this latter sect are the Ottoman Turks.

The Ommaiad Caliphs.—Moawyah succeeded in making the office hereditary instead of elective, as it hitherto had been, and thus established the dynasty of the Ommaiads, so-called from Ommaya, an ancestor of Moawyah. Under these Caliphs the political centre of the Empire was transferred to Damascus. Here the Caliph resided, while his *emirs* led his troops in new directions, and governed distant provinces in his name. *Cadis* or judges were likewise appointed to administer the laws of the Koran, in a few of the principal cities; and in every town there were preachers, who, acting as the deputies of the Caliph in his spiritual capacity, read and expounded the Koran on Fridays in buildings called *Mosques*. A separate class of functionaries, called *muftis*, prepared such new laws as were necessary to carry out the provisions of the Koran.

The Caliphate attained its fullest extent during the reign of Welid I. (705–715). In the reign of his predecessor, Abd-Almelik, the Arabian arms had been carried into Morocco and the Atlantic coast of Africa; and his Emir, Okba, had even meditated the invasion of Spain. That great exploit, however, was reserved for Muza, the governor of Africa, who sent his lieutenant, Tarik, with a strong force of Moors and Arabs to effect the conquest of the Peninsula. Tarik landed at the point which to this day in its name Gibraltar (*Gibel-al-Tarik*, *Hill of Tarik*), immortalizes his name. In the great battle of XERES DE LA FRONTERA, near the Guadalete (711), which lasted from Sunday to Sunday, the fate of the Visi-Gothic kingdom was decided. Within four years they were not only masters of Spain (except the mountainous tract in the north-west), but they had even passed beyond the Pyrenees into the province of Gothia (or Septimania), the small remnant of the Gallic dominions of the Visi-Gothic kings.

Narbonne, Arles, Nismes, all became for a while Mohammedan cities. Muza even conceived the plan, which, though vast, was not too extensive for men accustomed to subdue the world—by two great simultaneous attacks

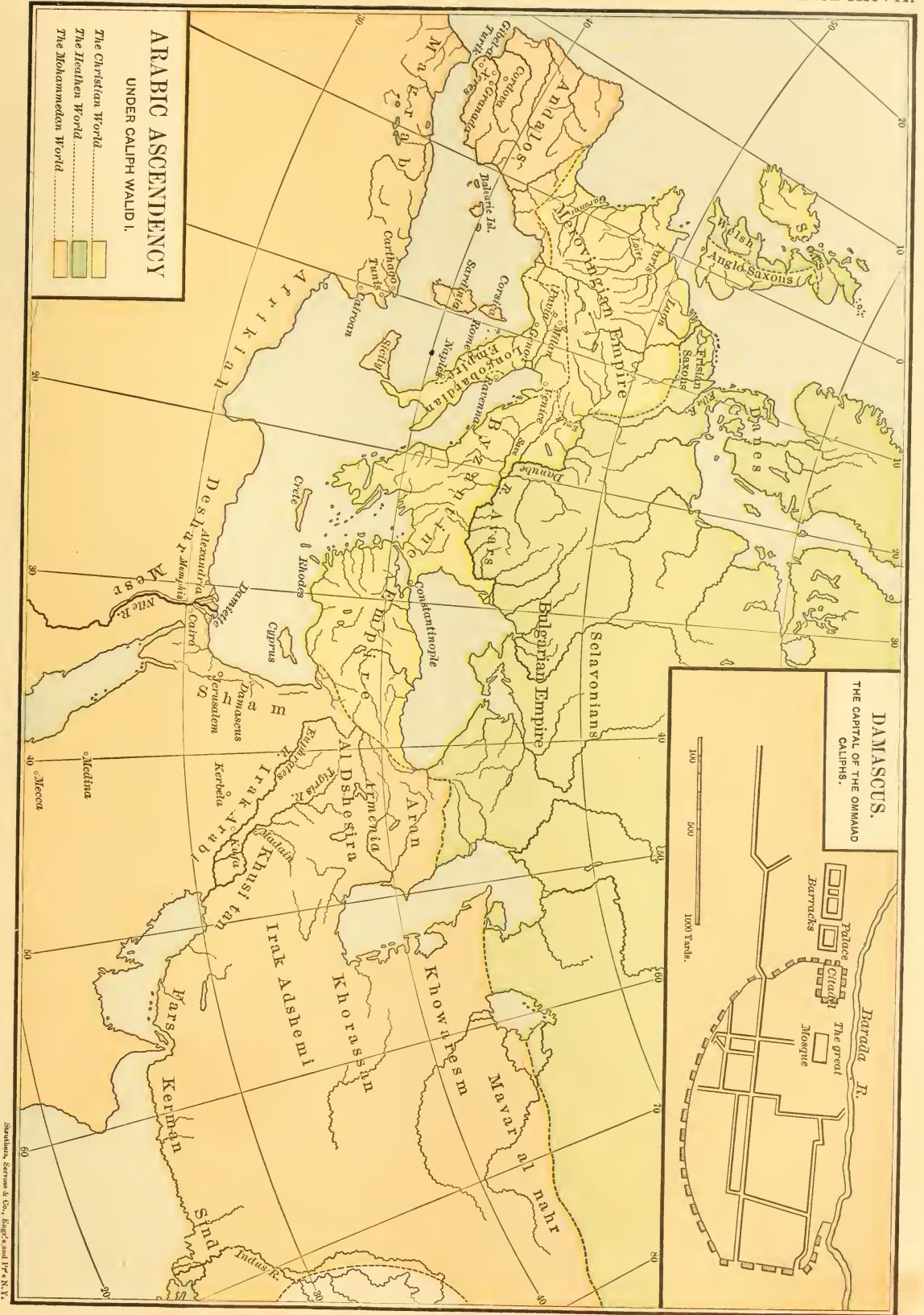
to render the whole of Christendom subservient to the Caliphate.

For this purpose an army was to advance from Asia Minor toward Constantinople, and another to march across the Pyrenees upon the Empire of the Franks; then from East and West to unite their triumphant forces in Rome, the centre of Christianity. Luckily for Europe, Muza at this time fell into disgrace with the Caliph, and his great project was only carried into effect piecemeal, and consequently without success. They began by attacking Constantinople, and blockaded that town for three years by sea and land. But the emperor, Leo III., defended himself with great courage, destroyed the Mohammedan fleet with the newly-invented Greek fire, and at last, in 718, forced their army to retire.

Ten years then elapsed before the Empire of the Franks was attacked in the West. In Muza's time this attack might have been successful, because the Franks were then torn by internal discord. Since then, however, Pepin of Héristal had united the whole Frankish power, as major-domus (mayor of the palace) of the whole kingdom of the Franks (678). He called himself *dux et princeps Francorum* (leader and prince of the Franks).

Eudes, Duke of Aquitaine, defeated by the Arabian invaders, sought help from Charles Martel, the son and successor of Pepin of Héristal. This Charles Martel, one of the bravest warriors of any time, beat the Arabian and African hordes in six hotly-contested battles between Tours and Poitiers (732). "The people of the East," says one of the Spanish historians, "the German race, men deep-chested, quick-eyed, and iron-handed, have crushed the Arabs." The battle of Tours did not make changes, but hindered them; but before long the one province which the Saracens held beyond the Pyrenees, that of Septimania, or Gothia, was won from them by the Franks (755).

The Abasside Caliphs.—Only eighteen years after the battle of Tours the house of the Ommaiades, under whom Islam had extended itself from the Atlantic to the Indus, was overthrown by the adherents of the descendants of Ali. They were especially numerous in Persia and there the revolt against the Ommaiades broke out. They proclaimed as Caliph Abu-l-Abbas, a descendant of Abbas, uncle of Mohammed. He took the name Abd-Allah and became the founder of the second Arabic Dynasty, called after his progenitor the ABASSIDES. A bloody persecution was begun by him against the Ommaiades, one of whom, Abd-Errhaman, succeeded in escaping to Spain. Here the Saracens, who took the



part of the persecuted dynasty, received him with open arms and accepted him as their Emir. Thus there arose distinct Mohammedan powers in the world:

I. THE CALIPHS OF BAGDAD, who governed through their Emirs the Arabic Empire proper, extending in a long tract westward from India to the shores of the Atlantic. The capital of this Empire was transferred to Bagdad (on the western bank of the Tigris), which had been built (762) on a magnificent scale by Almansor (second Abasside Caliph) and soon became the capital of the commercial enterprise and civilization of the Eastern world. The golden age of the Caliphate of Bagdad covers the latter part of the eighth and whole of the ninth century of our era, and was adorned by the reigns of such princes as Almansor and Haroun-al-Raschid (see Genealogy). During this period, science, philosophy, and literature were most assiduously cultivated by the Arabian scholars, and the court of the Caliphs presented in culture and luxury a striking contrast to the rude and barbarous courts of the kings and princes of Western Christendom.

Bagdad remained the abode of the Abassides for a period of five hundred years. Their caliphate was extinguished in the year 1258

A.D. by the Mongols, who stormed Bagdad (the only city at that time in possession of the Caliphs), and for seven days deluged its streets with blood. Motazem, the fifty-sixth and last Caliph, was sewn up in a cow's hide and dragged by the conquerors through the streets of his capital.

II. THE EMIRS OF CORDOVA, whose realm at one time extended from Gibraltar to the river Aude, in Languedoc. Their capital was the ancient city of Cordova, after which the realm was named the Emirate of Cordova. Until 929 they acknowledged the spiritual sway of the Caliphs of Bagdad. Then, however, Abd-Errhaman III. was proclaimed Caliph of the West. This Caliphate of Cordova lasted not much longer than a century (929-1031).

III. THE FATIMITE CALIPHS.—About the same time the Arabs in Spain refused their spiritual allegiance to the Caliph of Bagdad, a third caliphate arose in Tunis. Obaidallah, a lineal descendant of Hosain (see Genealogy), was acknowledged as Caliph in Tunis. His great-grandson, Muiz, conquered Egypt and made Cairo the seat of the Fatimite Caliphs (so-called after their ancestress, Fatima, daughter of the prophet). It lasted from 969 till 1171.

After the partitions of the caliphate scarcely any new conquests were made by the Arabs.

FROM THE CORONATION OF CHARLEMAGNE IN 800 A.D. TO THE BEGINNING OF THE CRUSADES IN 1096 A.D.

THE CARLOVINGIANS.

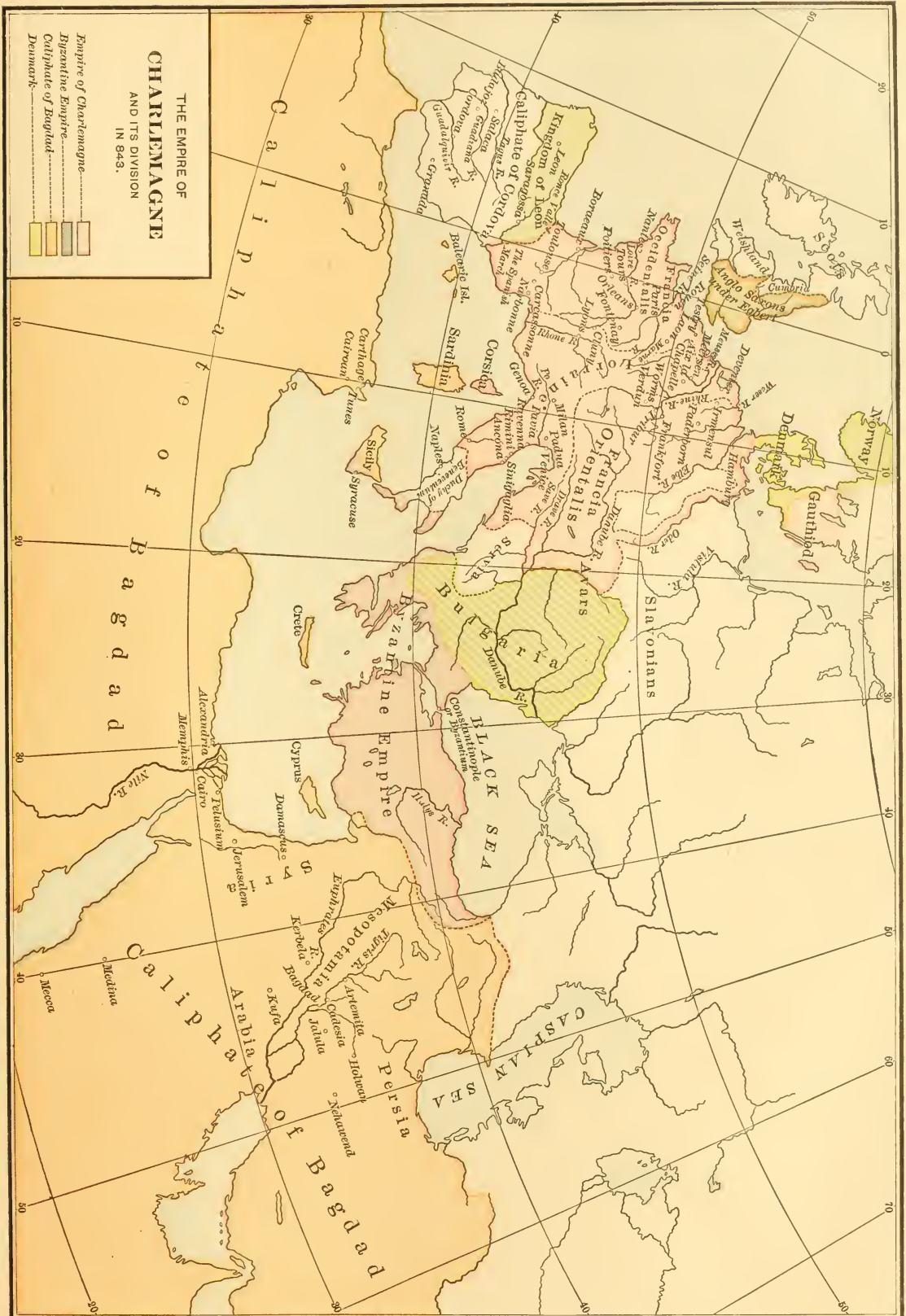
Pepin of Héristal.—The Merovingians rapidly degenerated, and the reins of government gradually dropped from their palsied hands. Entrusting, gradually, all functions of government to their superintendents of the royal household (*maiores domus*, mayors of the palace), they became mere puppets in their hands.

The race of the Pepinidæ acquired an hereditary claim to the office of Major-Domus in Austrasia. Pepin of Héristal, Major-Domus in Austrasia, became, by the victory of Testry (687), also Major-Domus in Neustria, and called himself henceforth *Dux et Princeps Francorum*. Although at first no change of dynasty followed this victory of the nobles over the popular party, it set the rule of the Merovingians practically aside for that of the leader of the Eastern Franks, Pepin of Héristal. The son of the conqueror of Testry was

that Charles Martel who saved Christendom in the battle of Tours (732).

King Pepin.—Pepin, the son of Charles Martel, saw in Rome the one source of religious authority which could give a sacred sanction to his rule. Rome saw in the Franks the one state which could save her from the ambition of the Lombards and the pressure of the Eastern emperor, and consequently the union of the two powers was soon drawn closer by mutual needs. In 751 the voice of Rome pronounced that the honors of sovereignty over the Franks should fall to the actual holder of power. Childeric, the last of the Merovingians, was sent into a monastery at St. Omer, and Pepin, lifted on a shield, on the Field of Mars, at Soissons, was declared King of the Franks (March, 752).

Next year King Pepin repaid his debt to Rome by crossing the Alps and delivering the Papacy from the pressure of the Lombards. He took from them the province of Ravenna,



which he gave to the Holy See. This donation was the origin of the temporal power of the Pope. The city of Rome, however, was not included in this gift. Two important acts had been accomplished by King Pepin the Short: a revolution in France—the Major-Domus had become the sovereign; a revolution in Christendom—the Bishop of Rome had become a temporal sovereign.

Charlemagne (768–814), on succeeding his father, Pepin, thoroughly developed his policy. At the urgent entreaty of Pope Stephen III. he entered Italy and conquered the Lombards, and placed their king, Desiderius, in a monastery (774). Lombardy was not incorporated with the Frankish realm. Charlemagne called himself King of the Franks and Lombards. He also bore the title of Patrician of the Romans, which made him virtually sovereign of Rome, and extended his dominion from the ocean to the frontiers of Beneventum. His plan was to unite the fragments of the Western Empire. To effect this he used two powerful sentiments—patriotism and religion. Thus, while he cherished the institutions which the Teutons loved, he protected the Church, and carried the cross at the head of his army. He undertook fifty-three expeditions against twelve different nations. Gauls, Saxons, Danes, Saracens, all felt the prowess of his arms. Upon the pagan Saxons burning the church of Deventer, he commenced a war with them which lasted thirty-three years, and ended in their compulsory Christianization. True to his own and his father's understanding with the Pope, he invariably insisted on baptism as the sign of submission, punishing with appalling barbarity any resistance. Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that clerical influence extended so fast; yet, rapid as was its development, the power of Charlemagne was more so. In the Church of St. Peter at Rome, on Christmas Day, 800, Pope Leo III. suddenly placed on the head of Charlemagne a crown, amid the acclamations of the people, "Long life and victory to Charles, the most pious Augustus, crowned by God, the great and pacific Emperor of the Romans."

The Empire.—The domains over which Charlemagne ruled with imperial authority were quite as ample as those embraced within the most extended limits of the Old Roman Empire in the West. His empire was bounded by the Ebro in Spain, by the Garigliano in Italy, by the Eider in Denmark, by the Raab in Southern Germany, and by the Oder in Northern Germany. The district between Elbe and Oder was never thoroughly conquered. Charles resided generally in Aix-la-

Chapelle, principally on account of its warm springs. The essential character of the empire was the perfect blending of the spiritual and temporal elements. The union between emperor and pope served as a model for that between count and bishop. Not only was the secular power to lend its arm to the spiritual, but the spiritual to aid the temporal by its excommunications. The great empire reminds us of a vast neutral ground in the midst of a world filled with carnage and devastation, where an iron will imposes peace on forces generally in a state of mutual hostility and destruction, and fosters and shelters the germ of civilization, so guarded was it on all sides by impregnable marches, or *marks*. Their defence was entrusted to Markgraves (*Marquesses*). Dukes governed provinces, but their power the emperor tried to reduce. For this purpose the whole empire was divided into districts, which were entrusted to counts. Imperial deputies (*missi domini*), lay and ecclesiastical, together visited all parts of the empire to examine and report as to their condition, to hold courts and to redress wrongs. There were appeals from them to the imperial tribunal over which a Count Palatine presided. Twice in the year great assemblies were held of the chiefs and people to give advice as to the framing of laws. The enactments of these assemblies are collected in the capitularies. They give us a deep insight in the social condition of those times.

The French form of the name (*Charlemagne*) under which the emperor has passed into history, has fostered the misconception that he was a French king, but in reality Charles (Karl) was above all things a German. He was in language, in ideas, in policy, and tastes, a German and not a Latin king, and his characteristic work was to lay the foundations of modern and civilized Germany, and indirectly, of the new commonwealth of nations, which was to rise in the West of Europe.

The work of Charlemagne perished with him. His feeble son, Louis (814–840), quickly dissipated this vast inheritance among his children.

Immediately after his death (840) a quarrel arose among his sons about the inheritance, Lothar, as emperor, claiming the whole. A battle was fought in 841, near Fontenay, in which Lothar was defeated. The war, however, continued until 843, when Lothar found himself compelled to conclude with his brothers the famous treaty of Verdun. In this partition treaty, the Teutonic principle of equal division among heirs triumphed over the Roman one of the transmission of an indi-

visible empire; the practical sovereignty of all three brothers was admitted in their respective territories, a barren precedence only reserved to Lothar, with the imperial title which he already enjoyed. A more important result was the separation of the Gallic and German nationalities. Their difference of feeling took now a permanent shape: modern Germany proclaims the era of 843 the beginning of her national existence.

I. Charles the Bald received Francia Occidentalis, or Neustria and Aquitaine. A corrupt tongue was spoken here, equally removed from Latin and from modern French.

II. Lothar, who, as emperor, must possess the two capitals, Rome and Aix-la-Chapelle, received a long and narrow realm, stretching from the North Sea to the Mediterranean. It had no national basis, and soon dissolved into the separate sovereignties of Italy, Burgundy, and Lotharingia, or Lorraine.

III. Louis the German got, in general, the country between the Rhine and the Elbe. Throughout these regions German was spoken. Under Charles the Fat all the Frankish dominions, except Burgundy, were again united (884). On his deposition, 887, they split asunder again. We have now four distinct kingdoms: those of the Eastern and Western Franks (the forerunners of Germany and France); the kingdom of Italy and Burgundy (sometimes forming one kingdom, sometimes two). Lotharingia remained a borderland between the Eastern and Western kingdoms, attached sometimes to one, sometimes to the other.

THE DANISH CONQUEST OF ENGLAND.

First Raids.—In the long period of nearly four centuries which had elapsed between the Jutish conquest of Kent and the establishment of the West-Saxon overlordship, the politics of Britain had been wholly insular. The island had been brought back by Augustine and his successors into ecclesiastical, commercial, and literary union with the continent, and now the Danish invasions were to pave the way for a political union with it. The Danes were a Scandinavian tribe, who first came in small bands, upon light boats, which they handled with extraordinary skill and boldness. Since 831 they levied tribute from all the North of Ireland. Their action in the Irish seas roused the Welsh to fresh hopes of freedom, especially as it was not as foes, but as friends, that they were offering themselves to them for a raid on their common enemy. All Cornwall rose against the West Saxons. But Ecgbert conquered the league of Danes and Welsh, at Hengestesdun (835), which victory won rest

for his own Wessex during the remainder of his reign (until 836).

His son, Æthelwulf, also fought strenuously in the defence of his realm, and this gained for it a little respite; for eight years the Danes left the land, and Æthelwulf died in peace (858). But these earlier attacks had been mere preludes to the real storm. When it burst in full force upon the unhappy island, it was no longer a series of plunder-raids, but the invasion of Britain by a host of conquerors, who settled as they conquered.

The Conquest.—In 866 the Danes landed in East Anglia, and marched in the next spring across the Humber upon York. Northumbria at once submitted, and Mercia was only saved by a hasty march of King Æthelred.

The Danes now turned to East Anglia, whose underking, Eadmund, being captured, was bound to a tree and shot to death with arrows. His martyrdom made him the popular saint of the eastern shore; his figure, in after times, adorned the window of many a church, and the stately abbey of St. Eadmundsbury rose over his relics. East Anglia was divided among the Danish invaders, and their leader, Guthrum, became its king. The great abbeys of the fen country, Medeshamstead, Croyland, Ely, were burned, and their inmates slain among the ruins. Mercia, to avoid invasions, acknowledged the Danes as its overlords, and paid them tribute. Within five years the work of Ecgbert had been undone. The whole country north of the Thames had been torn from the overlordship of Wessex, which now had to fight, not for supremacy, but for life. Its comparatively successful resistance may be set down to the energy of a single man, Ælfred, the fourth son of Æthelwulf, who, by the death of his brother Æthelred, in 871, became king of Wessex.

Ælfred the Great.—Ælfred was a sturdy and hearty fighter, and a good king of a semi-barbaric people. As a lad, he had visited Rome; and he retained throughout life a strong sense of his own and his people's barbarism, and a genuine desire to civilize himself and his subjects so far as his limited lights could carry him. During the first year of his reign (871) he succeeded in driving the Danes out of Wessex. But in 878 they renewed their attacks under Guthrum, and captured Chippenham, Ælfred's residence. The king himself, dispirited by his many losses, retired for refuge to the marshes of Athelney. It was a position from which he could watch closely the movements of his foes, and with the first burst of spring he summoned his men for a sudden attack upon the enemy. At Ethandun

the fight took place ; the Danes, being beaten, fled to their camp, where they were closely besieged for fourteen days, and forced to surrender. Their leader, Guthrum, was baptized and bound by a solemn peace at Wedmore. By this peace the Danes were to leave Wessex, and that part of Mercia which was south-west of Watling Street ; their chiefs were to embrace Christianity and receive the whole land beyond Watling Street as vassals of the West-Saxon king.

This triumph over Guthrum gave Ælfred leisure to prepare for the reconquest of the rest of the country. For this purpose he steadily got ready a new fleet and army. But he did more to gather England round him by doing what he could to restore to it the law and good government which seemed to have perished in the troubles of the time. Not less earnestly did he strive to restore learning, which had suffered most of all ; and in the face of overwhelming difficulties he did so much, both by himself and through other scholars, that as English poetry is said to begin with Cædmon, so English prose looks back for its beginning to Ælfred.

The amount of work with which he is credited is truly astonishing. He translated into English, with his own hand, "The History of the World," by Orosius ; Beda's "Ecclesiastical History," Boetius' "De Consolatione," and Gregory's "Regula Pastoralis." At his court, too, if not under his own direction, *The English Chronicle* was first begun.

Renewed Struggles.—Death removed Ælfred (901) before he could carry out his plans of winning back England from the Danes, but his departure left the West Saxons as ready as ever to contend against the enemy. The history of the tenth century, and the first half of the eleventh, consists entirely of the continued contest between the West Saxons and the Scandinavians. It falls naturally into three periods :

The first is that of the English reaction, when the West-Saxon kings, Eadward and Æthelstan, gradually reconquered the Danish North by inches at a time. Each district recovered from the Danes was placed under an Ealdorman, intended to be a lieutenant of the national sovereign.

The second period is that of Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was probably the first Englishman who deserves the name of statesman. He was, during thirty years (958-988), the real ruler of England. Essentially an organizer and administrator, he was able to weld the unwieldy empire into a rough unity, which lasted as long as its author lived, and no longer.

The third period is that of the decadence, beginning with the death of Dunstan, in 988. Finally, under Æthelred (†1016), the ill-welded empire fell asunder.

Æthelred.—This king, when pressed by a fresh Danish invasion (994 A.D.), sought for safety by an alliance with the Normans of Neustria. He married Emma, daughter of the Norman Duke, Richard the Fearless (943-996). Thus supported, he proceeded to unjustifiable outrages against his domestic as well as his foreign foes. The Danes who remained in Britain he caused to be murdered all on one day (1002). The consequences of this deed necessarily recoiled upon himself. When the Danish King, Sven, landed (1013), he experienced no effectual resistance whatever. Æthelred had to fly before him, and seek refuge with his brother-in-law, Richard the Good, Duke of Normandy (1014).

Cnut the Great.—But Sven died in the first enjoyment of his victory. His son Cnut had no sooner appeared off the English coast, near Southampton, than the lay and spiritual chiefs of England decided to abandon the house of Cerdic forever, and to recognize Cnut as their king. With the sole support of London, and part of Wessex, Eadmund Ironside, the son and successor of Æthelred, who passed away at the opening of the new contest (1016), struggled for a few months against the Danish forces. But a decisive victory at Assandun (1016), and the death of his rival, left Cnut master of the realm. Cnut did not owe the crown to conquest, though his greater power contributed to the result, but to election, which now appeared as the superior right. Hitherto the Witan had always exercised it within the limits of the royal family ; this time they disregarded that family altogether.

Edward the Confessor.—After Cnut's death (1035) we can observe a wavering between the principles of election and birthright. The magnates again elected, but limited their choice to the king's house. After the extinction of the Danish-Norman family, they came back to the English-Norman one ; they called the son of Æthelred and Emma, Edward the Confessor, to the throne of his father, though, it is true, without leaving him much power. This lay rather in the hands of the earls, who were anxious to revive the old kingdoms, and did what they could to undo the work of Ælfred and Dunstan.

Harold.—When Edward died without issue, the house of Godwin, which had previously secured three of the six earldoms into which England was divided, brought about the election of the mightiest of the earls—Harold, son



of Godwin, Earl of Wessex. The very day on which Edward the Confessor died (January 5, 1066), Harold was elected and crowned without delay. This woke rivalry and dissension among the other nobles, and so laid England open to the ambition of Danes and Normans.

THE NORMANS.

Character of the Incursions.—The conquest of England by the Danes was not an isolated event, but part of a great movement among the Northern nations.

Leaving their homes in the ninth century, they had by the end of the twelfth penetrated into nearly every country of Europe. So close were their political and family relations with all the countries of the West, from Iceland to Constantinople, from Russia to Spain, during the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth centuries, that a history of the Northern emigrants is little short of a history of Europe during those ages. The three countries—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—all shared in the general movement, and the expeditions were indiscriminately joined by Dane and Swede and Northman.

The English called them collectively Danes; the Irish, Eastmen; the people of Gaul, Normans.

Originally their journeys had been little more than marauding expeditions for the sake of plunder. They had no idea of forming any definite settlement, and ravaged the territories of friend and foe alike. But after 855 the idea of permanent settlement becomes apparent. We saw how in England about that time the Danish invasions, which had been going on since 787, assumed a new form. They settled permanently in the northeastern part of England and finally made it a Danish realm. The cause of this may be found in a great political revolution in the three Northern realms, consisting in the confiscation of the common tribe land by the central power, and the introduction of a grinding system of taxation. Irritated at the loss of their lands and freedom, they determined to emigrate, and a general exodus of the Northern nation commenced, an exodus which may be compared to the present European exodus to America.

Norman Settlements.—Besides England there were three other Scandinavian settlements on the islands west of the European continent. 1. The Orkneys and Shetlands, lying to the northeast of Scotland. 11. The isles to the west as far south as Ireland. 111. Iceland and the Faröe Isles. By the close of the eighth century they have also made settlements in the west of Scotland. A century later we meet a sort of naval empire consist-

ing of the Hebrides, parts of the western coasts of Scotland, especially the modern Argyllshire, Man, Anglesea, and the eastern shores of Ireland. This empire, which lasted through the whole of the tenth century (until 1014), was ruled by the Hy-Ivar (grandsons of Ivar), who resided either in Dublin or on the Isle of Man.

Other Northmen settled among the Slavonians, on the great plains of Eastern Europe, and became the founders of Russia (862 A.D.).

Normans in Gaul.—Gaul was as much exposed to the Scandinavian attacks as Britain. At first the Northmen confined their ravages to the valleys of the streams, and took care to remain always within reach of the boats. Afterward, when they saw how little resistance was made, they boldly marched into the interior of the country. They penetrated to the centre of France as far as Limoges, which they plundered. They besieged Paris three times in twenty years. The fourth time, however (888), they were repulsed after a siege of several months.

These incursions in Gaul naturally fall into three groups, guided by the great rivers and intervening shores. 1. The district around the Scheldt and Rhine. 11. The districts of Loire and Garonne, reaching as far West as Spain, and inland as far as Bourges. 111. The districts of the Seine, Somme, and Oise.

The invasions of Gaul by the Northmen differ from those of England by the Danes in one material point. Numerous as they were, they were isolated and scattered; those of the Danes in England continuous. Consequently the latter permanently occupied one-half of England, and, though becoming Englishmen, still retained a certain local existence, and remained more or less distinct until the Norman conquest. But the settlers in Gaul, lying in small isolated groups, and but little recruited by new-comers—soon became entirely merged in the surrounding nationality, and lost their individuality, with the exception of one settlement alone, that of Hrolf (Rollo) at Rouen.

Normandy.—Charles the Simple, King of Francia Occidentalis, being powerless to drive Rollo away, granted him by treaty the territories which were already his own. By this treaty of *Clair on Epte* (see Plate XXXII.) Rollo secured the country from the river Epte to the sea, and the overlordship of Brittany, with the hand of Gisela, the daughter of Charles the Simple, and accepting Christianity as the price of the treaty, was led to the font by Robert, Count of Paris, who consented to be his god-father. During his reign (912-927) he laid the foundations of a lasting state, and

while all other settlements of his race in France and Germany rapidly disappeared, this alone has lasted on and deeply affected future ages.

Under Rollo's successors, William Longsword (d. 943), Richard the Fearless (d. 996), and Richard the Good (d. 1027), Normandy grew more populous, both through the natural increase of the population at home and the arrival of fresh bands of Scandinavians from the old home.

Finally, after more than a century had passed, the old Norse spirit of adventure revived. Many valiant deeds showed that Normandy was seething with vigorous life. Some sailed to Spain, trying in vain to wrest from the Moors lands for themselves. Others succeeded in gaining a foothold in the South of Italy and on Sicily, where they finally succeeded in forming a Norman state, which lasted nearly a century (till 1194).

The most important of their enterprises, however, was the conquest of England.

William's Claim.—There had often been rumors that the childless Edward the Confessor had destined Duke William of Normandy (whose grandfather, Richard, was brother to Edward's mother, Emma), to be his successor. Men asserted that Harold had previously recognized this right, and that in return, William's daughter and a part of the land, as an independent possession, had been promised him. However we may decide as to the details told us about his relations to Edward and Harold, it seems undeniable that William had received provisional promises from both. William submitted his claims to the English throne to the Roman See. Pope Alexander II. sent the Duke the banner of the Church. The Normans were still divided in their views as to the enterprise, but when this news arrived all opposition ceased.

The Norman Invasion.—The invasion of England by Tostig (Harold's brother) and Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, which was undertaken in concert with William, did something to weaken the English power of defence. At Stamford Bridge, where after half a century the place of battle was still heaped with the bones of warriors, many of the bravest English fell in the long day's struggle. On the third day after Harold's victory over the Northmen, William landed at Pevensey (September 28). His merciless ravages of the coast succeeded, as they were intended, in drawing Harold to an engagement. But, if forced to give battle, he resolved to give it on ground he had himself chosen, and, advancing near enough to the coast to check William's ravages, he entrenched himself on the hill of

Senlac—a low spur of the Sussex Downs, near Hastings—in a position which covered London, and forced the Norman army to concentrate. With a host subsisting by pillage, to concentrate is to starve, and no alternative was left to William but a decisive victory or ruin. And so William and Harold, the French knights, and the national war-array of the English, met near "*the hoar apple tree*," as the Saxon Chronicle expresses it (October 14). Harold fell at the very beginning of the fight. The Normans knew how to separate their enemies by a pretended flight, and then, by a sudden return, to surround and destroy them in isolated bodies. It was the iron-clad, yet rapidly moving cavalry, which decided the battle.

The Conquest of England.—The beaten army retreated on London, and there raised to the throne Edgar, grandson of Eadmund Ironside. But this choice gave little strength to the national cause. For, when William neared London, Eadgar himself was at the head of the deputation which came to offer the crown to the Norman Duke, and at Christmas, 1066, he was crowned at Westminster by Archbishop Ealdred. As yet, indeed, the greater part of England remained quietly aloof from him. But to the east of a line which stretched from the Wash to Poole Harbor in Dorset, his rule was unquestioned, and after the campaign of 1068, England, as far as the Tees, seemed to lie quietly at his feet. But now England suddenly arose as one man. William, although taken by surprise, was equal to the occasion. A series of campaigns began which left him, five years after the battle of Hastings, undisputed master of England.

FOUNDATION OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

The Last Carolingians in Germany.—After the deposition of Charles the Fat (887) the ill-assorted elements were forever separated and four kingdoms arose, Eastern and Western Francia, Italy, and Burgundy. Lotharinga remained a border land between the two first-named, attached sometimes to Western sometimes to Eastern Francia. The latter, the forerunner of Germany, fell after the death of the last of the Carolingians into a kind of loose federation of four nations, Franconia, Saxony, Suabia, and Bavaria, with their separate laws and their own dukes. From among these dukes was chosen the presiding officer of the confederacy with the title of king. The first choice fell on Conrad of Franconia, who, instead of being satisfied with the position of presiding officer, constantly endeavored to become a sovereign. The result was

constant troubles with his equals, the other dukes.

On Conrad's death, in 918, the Saxons and Franks elected Henry, Duke of Saxony, as their leader in war. Clearly perceiving that the possibility of a monarchy depended solely on the relations of the Franks and Saxons, he treated the Duke of Franconia like an ally. The dukes of Bavaria and Suabia were gradually induced to acknowledge his leadership. Finally, even Lorraine hailed him as the representative of the unity of the German tribes and their commander in war. He was the founder of many cities in Northern Germany, and gave great encouragement to commerce and manufactures. He obtained a decisive victory over his most dangerous enemies (the Magyars at Merseburg, in 933), re-established the marches which had been broken at all points, and suffered nothing that bore the German name to be wrested from him. He bequeathed an undisputed sceptre to his house.

Otto the Great.—Otto I. (936-973) carried forward with equal energy the work which his father had begun. He first completely realized the idea of a Germanic empire, which his father had only conceived and prepared. In order to maintain the unity of the kingdom, he aimed to make the dukes who during his father's reign had been sovereigns, officers of the crown. When the dukes of Bavaria, Franconia, and Lorraine rose in arms against him he not only subdued them, but gave the conquered duchies to members of his own family. In order to confirm his authority he increased the powers of the Counts Palatine, royal officers who superintended the domains of the king in the several duchies and dispensed justice in his name.

The Foundation of the Holy Roman Empire.—Italy was, during the first half of the tenth century, a prey to anarchy. For a time (926-945) Hugh of Provence was called king; then followed his son Lothar (till 950). His successor, Berengar II. of Ivrea, tried to force Adelheid, the beautiful young widow of Lothar, into a marriage with his son Adalbert. She escaped with great difficulty from the prison where she was confined, took refuge in the castle of Canossa, and appealed to King Otto for help.

He listened, descended into Lombardy by the Brenner pass, espoused the injured queen, and forced Berengar to hold his kingdom as a vassal of the East Frankish crown (952). But Berengar was turbulent and faithless; new complaints reached ere long his liege lord, and envoys from Pope John XII. offered Otto the imperial crown if he would enter and pacify Italy. Everything smiled on

Otto's enterprise, and the connection which was destined to bring such strife and woe to Germany and to Italy was welcomed by the wisest of both countries as the beginning of a better era. Descending from the Alps with an overpowering force, he was crowned King of Italy at Pavia; and, having first taken an oath to protect the Holy See and respect the liberties of the city, advanced to Rome. There, with Adelheid, his queen, he was crowned by the Pope (February 2, 962).

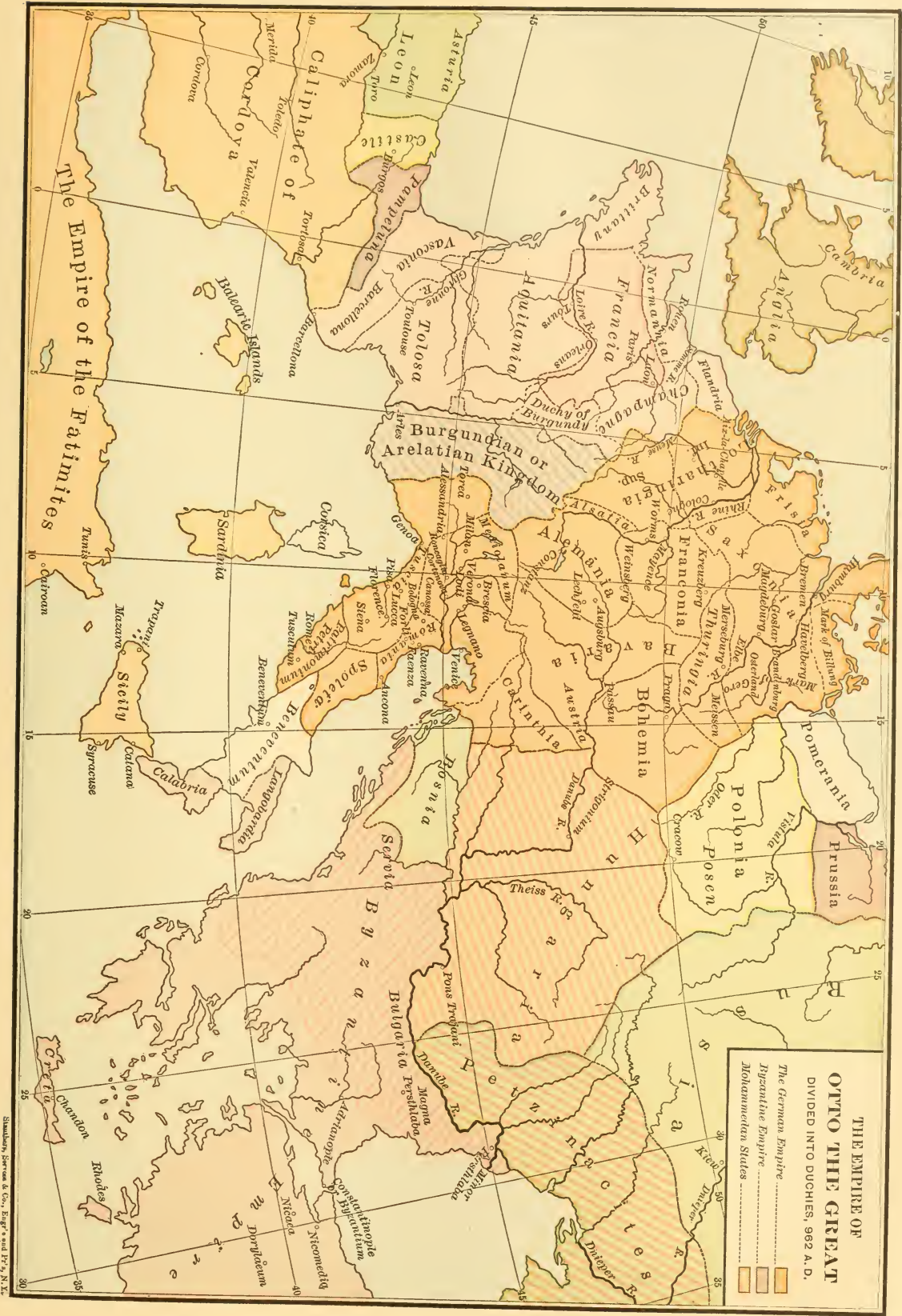
The rule was now fully established that the German king who was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle had a right to be crowned King of Italy at Milan, and Emperor at Rome.

A geographical Western Empire was thus again founded, consisting of the two kingdoms of Germany and Italy, to which at the expiration of the Burgundian line, in 1032, Burgundy was added. These three kingdoms with the Empire of Rome (the *dominium mundi* and the titular lordship over the city of Rome), now formed the Western Empire, generally called the German Empire, or, more accurately, the Holy Roman Empire.

In a time of disintegration, confusion, and strife, all the longings of every wiser and better soul for unity, for peace, and law, for some bond to bring Christian men and Christian states together against the common enemy of the faith, were but so many cries for the restoration of the Roman Empire. These were feelings that thirty years before (933) had broken forth on the field of Merseburg, in the shout of "Henry the Emperor," these the hopes of the Teutonic host, when, after the great victory on the Lechfeldt, they had greeted Otto, conqueror of the Magyars, as *Imperator, Augustus, Pater Patriæ* (955).

Otto and the Papacy.—The very pope who had crowned Otto soon reversed his steps, allied himself with Berengar, and tried to stir up the Greeks, and even the Magyars, against the emperor. But the latter remembered the terrible day of the Lechfeldt. Otto came down from Lombardy and captured Rome. He caused Pope John XII. to be deposed and Leo VIII. to be appointed in his place (963). But while Otto was again absent Leo was driven out by the Romans and John returned, but only to die. The Romans then elected Benedict pope.

Otto captured Rome, once more deposed him, and restored Leo. On a third journey to Italy, in 966, Otto crushed the factions which had so long degraded Rome and the Church. On this occasion he negotiated a marriage between Theophania, a Greek princess, and his eldest son, Otto. Thus he acquired the southern extremity of Italy.



The Other Emperors of the Saxon Line.

—This Otto II. (973-983) lacked his father's energy and decision. In 980 he went to Southern Italy to conquer it from the Saracens, but in an unfortunate sea-fight he narrowly escaped falling into their hands. Before he could prepare for a new campaign he died. While Otto III. (983-1002) was a minor, his mother, Theophania, was regent for a time in Germany. He grew up a highly gifted man, reminding the people of his illustrious grandfather, Otto I. Sixteen years old, he was crowned emperor in Rome (996), which he dreamed to make once more the centre of the world. But he died before the completion of his twenty-second year. Upon his unexpected decease without issue, his second cousin, Henry, Duke of Bavaria, was raised to the throne as next of kin. He was an earnest religious man, great as warrior, but still greater as law-giver. He had continually to fight, and was in general successful. Lombardy and Bohemia were forced by his sword to acknowledge his authority. The result of his successful warfare was that the seven German duchies (Bavaria, Carinthia, Alemannia, Franconia, Saxony, Upper Lorraine, and Lower Lorraine) learned to look upon each other as members of one nation.

One of his greatest acts was the foundation of the bishopric of Bamberg, which Germanized the countries on the Upper Maine, which hitherto had been Slavonic. From the time of his ancestor, Henry I., until forty years after the death of Henry II., the German kings remained the chief sovereigns of the Christian world. The German princes had not yet rendered their offices and feudal possessions hereditary, but continued to be great and powerful vassals, while the royal house enjoyed the preponderating power. The Ottos and their successors protected Germany from the anarchy which laid waste the other parts of Europe.

As emperors of the Holy Roman Empire they represented the unity of Western Christendom.

The Eastern Empire During this Period.—While the Western Empire had thus become Germanic, the Eastern Empire had become Asiatic. It is only in Asia that any solid part of territory is kept. The interior of the Balkan peninsula belonged only in name to the emperor at Constantinople, Servians and Bulgarians having founded independent states; only islands and fringes of coast belonged to the emperor. But they were almost continuous fringes of coast, fringes which contained some of the greatest cities of Christendom, and which gave their masters

an undisputed supremacy by sea. If the eastern basin of the Mediterranean was not a Byzantine lake, it was only the presence of the Saracen, and the occasional visit of the Norman, which hindered it from being so.

Origin of the Capets and Plantagenets.

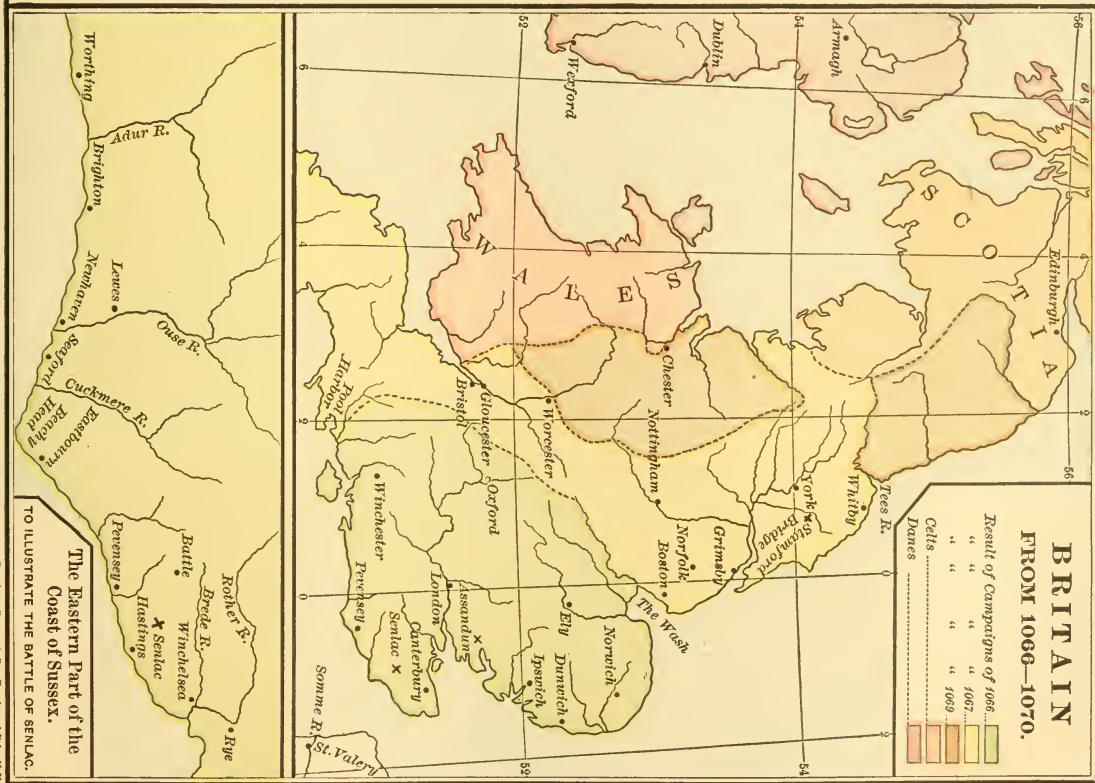
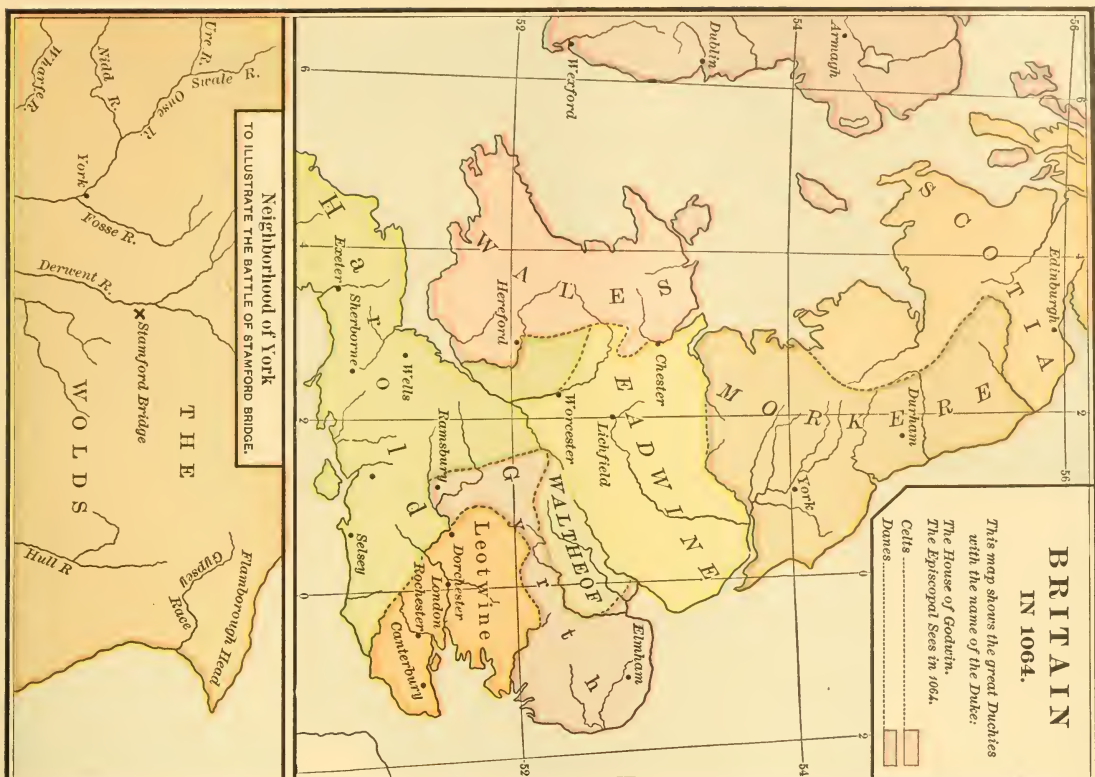
—In Anjou, close to the march of Bretagne, there arose, in the ninth century, two families, the progenitors of the Capets and Plantagenets of the future kings of France and of England—both springing from obscure chiefs who distinguished themselves by their defence of their country. The Plantagenets refer their origin to Torthulf, a simple peasant, who was named by Charles the Bald ranger of the forest of Nid-de-Merle (Thrush's nest). His son, who was named after him, was created senechal of Anjou.

The Capets, likewise, first settled in Anjou, and appear to have been Saxon chiefs in the service of Charles the Bald, who intrusted to their first known ancestor, Robert the Strong, the defence of the country between the Seine and the Loire. Robert the Strong is slain by Hastings, the leader of the Northmen, in the battle of Brisserte; while his more successful son, Eudes, repulses them when they lay siege to Paris (885), and gains a great victory over them at Montfauçon.

Carlovingians and Capetians.—On the deposition of Charles the Fat he is chosen king of France. On his death, in 893, the Carlovingian, Charles the Simple, receives the royal title. During this stormy reign the royal title was assumed first by Robert, brother of King Eudes, and then by Raoul of Burgundy, son-in-law of Robert. After Charles the Simple was dethroned and imprisoned at Laon, in 929, Raoul was generally recognized. But in 936 Louis d'Outremer (from beyond the sea), son of Charles, returned from his exile in England, and was allowed to mount the throne. The real ruler, however, was King Robert's son Hugh, Count of Paris, surnamed the Great, from his immense possessions, and who was the most powerful man between Seine and Loire.

Disdaining the title of king, he played against Louis the same part which had been played by Robert and Raoul against Charles. Louis died in 954, and was succeeded by his son, King Lothar. Two years later Hugh the Great died, and was succeeded as Duke of Francia by his son, Hugh Capet. Although the reign of Lothar was somewhat less disturbed than that of his father, on the whole, however, Lothar and Hugh Capet stand in nearly the same relation as Louis and Hugh the Great.

Lothar was succeeded, in 986, by his son,



Louis V., who expired only one year after his father's death, May, 987.

The Capets on the Throne.—Lothar's brother, Charles of Lorraine, attempted to succeed his nephew on the throne. The nation had sworn in the election of kings to confine themselves to the house of Pepin. But Hugh Capet was elected and Charles of Lorraine was made a prisoner.

The house of Charlemagne without a revolution sunk unobserved into obscurity, as the family of Clovis had sunk before, not in consequence of tyrannical government, but through the weakness of its last representatives. Hugh Capet secretly prepared the way for a more important revolution for converting the elective into an hereditary monarchy. In order to effect this he caused his son Robert to be crowned during his own life, and thus contrived to make his own authority come in aid of the feeble pretensions which the young prince could offer to the throne.

The succeeding king imitated his example, until in the time of Philip Augustus, the royal power seemed so securely established in the hands of the reigning dynasty that the precaution was henceforth superfluous.

Importance of the Election of Hugh Capet.—The accession of the Capetian race far exceed in importance that of the Carolingian. Strictly speaking, it constitutes the end of the reign of the Franks and the substitution of a national monarchy for a government founded on conquest. Henceforward French history is unmixed, and we follow and recognize the same people, despite the changes that take place in manners and civilization. This national identity is the foundation on which the dynastic unity has for so many ages rested. The people seem to have had a singular presentiment of this long succession of kings, on the accession of the third race. The report ran that, in 981, St. Valery, whose relics, Hugh Capet, then Count of Paris, had just had translated, appeared to him in a dream, and said: *For what thou hast done, thou and thy descendants shall be kings to the seventh generation—that is, forever.*

The accession of the new dynasty was hardly noticed in the distant provinces. For a long time the monarch will have little more influence than a duke or a mere count. The Capets are powerful lords, capable of resisting by themselves the great lords. They hold many countships in their own hands. With the third race, as with the second, royalty was renewed by a family of large proprietors friendly to the Church. Property and the Church form the deep foundations on which monarchy will once more rise and flourish.

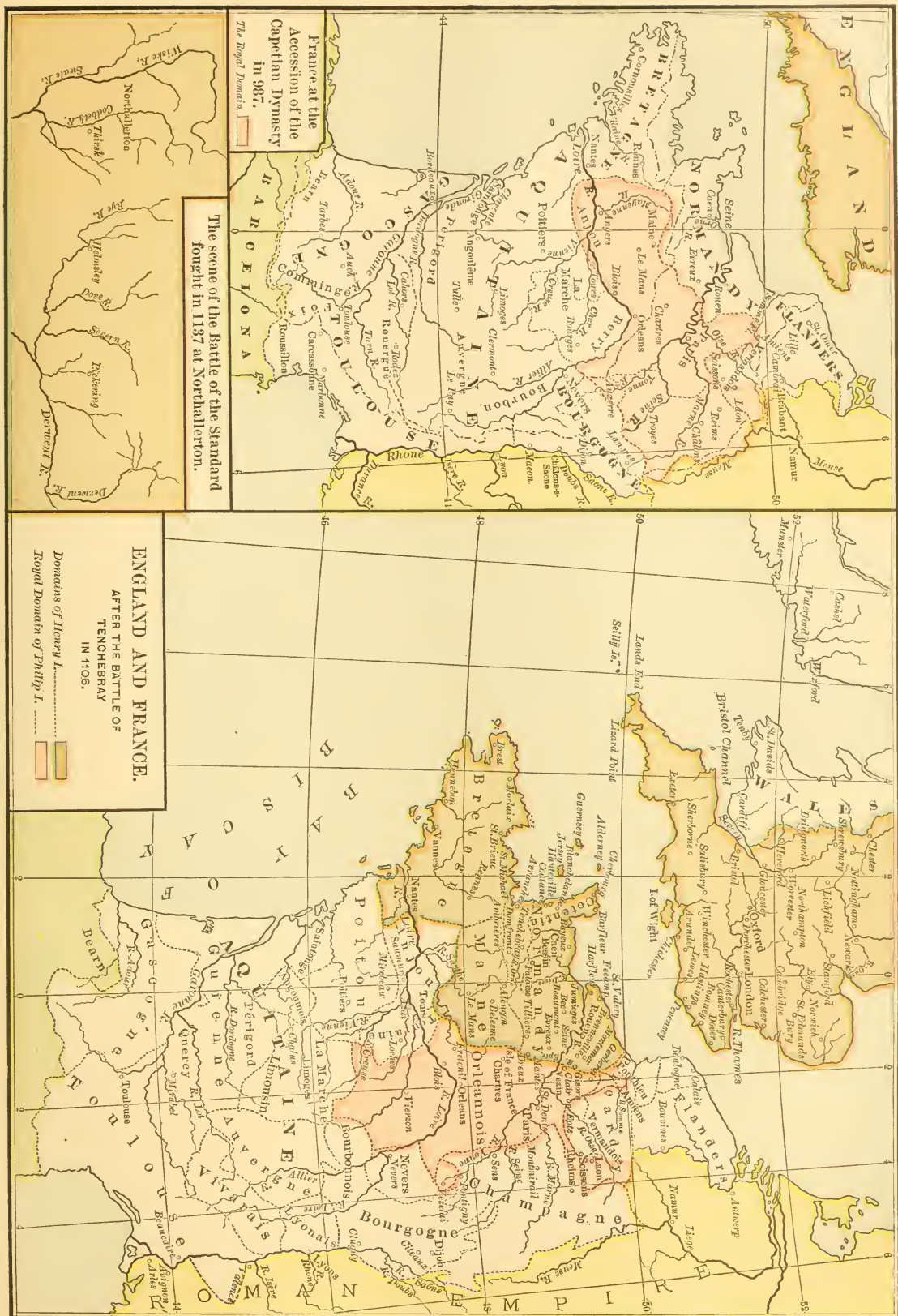
ENGLAND AND NORMANDY UNDER THE NORMAN DYNASTY.

William the Conqueror.—The temper and the circumstances of the Conqueror gave their impress to his policy. His distrust of the English was the natural result of the course which he had taken toward them. He did enough to make confidence in him impossible, and then affected to complain of the want of confidence. It was not in his nature to choose a mild course for its own sake. His avarice and his ambition prompted him to rule with a strong hand. To gratify these passions he could descend to almost any debt in craft or crime.

When he promised at his coronation to rule the people of England as the best of their kings had ruled them, it was to secure the appearance, as far as possible, of an English suffrage in connection with that ceremony. When he pledged himself in the most public and solemn manner two years later to uphold the laws of Edward the Confessor, it was with the hope of deterring the Southern English from taking part with the insurgents of the North. In the great meeting at Salisbury, the pledge to govern according to the good laws of Edward and of his predecessors was renewed.

Among the acts of the Conqueror, of which we find traces to this very day, is the creation of the New Forest, by turning the cultivated ground of a great part of Hampshire into a forest, and so it remains to the present day.

The Domesday Book.—The record of *Domesday Book* made its report concerning the persons and properties of the kingdom in 1085. The design of the Conqueror in securing an entry of all persons and properties in this book was to possess himself of the information necessary for making his enactments and exercising his arbitrary will in a manner that should be at once scientific and certain. The original written book still exists in the chapter-house at Westminster Abbey. It is the most complete and most curious account of a country in such far-off times that has ever been written. It gives the names of the owners and tenants of every estate in England, and shows us the different classes and occupations of the rest of the people. We find there were Norman barons and Saxon thanes. These were the nobility of the land, and were called freemen. Then there was a class called villeins (*villagers*), who were allowed to occupy the land at the will of the lord, on condition of performing certain services. But they could acquire no property in land or goods. Below these were the slaves.



William Rufus (1087-1100).—In 1087 the Conqueror was obliged to go over to France to defend his possessions in Normandy, and at the siege of Mantes his horse trod on some burning embers, and injured him so severely that he soon died from the effects of his accident. He was buried at Caen, in Normandy. His second son, William, hastened from Normandy to England and seized the crown before his elder brother Robert could take any steps to support his claim to the throne. Robert succeeded his father as Duke of Normandy, and invaded England with a view of placing himself on the English throne. But William made fair promises to the English, who flocked to his help, and the invaders were not only defeated, but war was carried into France.

Normandy was at length pawned to him for five years by his brother Robert for a sum of money, which enabled the duke to join the first crusade. William Rufus was killed in that New Forest which had been planted by his father. He was hunting there, and was accidentally slain by an arrow aimed at one of the "tall deer" his father so much loved.

Henry Beauclerc (1100-1135).—According to the law of succession Robert should have succeeded to his brother William. But at the moment when the throne became vacant, Robert was at a distance with the Crusaders, and his place was seized by his younger brother Henry. It became Henry, in these circumstances, to be mindful of everything that might tend to conciliate the nation, and especially the clergy. He removed some obnoxious officers, put an end to many irritating oppressions, and bound himself at his coronation by the oath of the Anglo-Saxon kings.

Robert, on his return from the Holy Land, found himself again cheated of his right to the crown of England. He, however, at once made preparations to cross the Channel, and arrived at Portsmouth in 1101. Henry now found out the wisdom of the conduct which he had followed in securing the good-will of the English; for, while very many Norman nobles sided with Robert, the English rallied around Henry. For several days the two armies stood facing each other, but as a great battle would have been the ruin of Norman influence in the country, peace was made between them by the influence of Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury. It was agreed that Robert should keep possession of Normandy and Henry remain King of England. But Henry was very ambitious and very soon found a pretext for invading Normandy. At the battle of Tenchebray Robert fell into his brother's hands, who carried him off to England. Here he kept

him in prison in Cardiff Castle for nearly thirty years; and as a chronicler of the time says, "Nor was he liberated till the day of his death." This victory over Robert united again England and Normandy. Robert's son William could, however, neither forget his own rights nor his father's wrongs, and he found strong supporters in the King of France and the counts of Flanders and Anjou. They invaded Normandy and attacked Henry at Brenneville, near Rouen. But again the victory remained with Henry, and his nephew escaped with the greatest difficulty. Henry died in 1135.

Stephen (1135-1155).—The only surviving child of Henry I. was Mathilda, married to Geoffrey Plantagenet. Stephen, Count of Blois, was the son of Adela, daughter of William the Conqueror. His uncle Henry, the late king, had brought him to England at an early age and had treated him with marked favor. Although he had sworn with the other barons to maintain the right of his cousin Mathilda, he hurried off from Henry's death-bed to secure the throne for himself and was crowned at London a few weeks after his uncle's death. David, King of Scotland, and uncle of Mathilda, was the first to take up arms in her cause. He invaded the Northern counties, but Stephen bought him off by the grant of the lordship of Huntingdon and the castle of Carlisle.

Again Mathilda implored him to take up arms in her behalf, and the Norman barons who had fled to the lowlands from Stephen's strong rule, urged him to overthrow the usurper. He invaded England again in 1138, ravaging the country in the most cruel manner, retreating as soon as Stephen marched against him, who was unable to pursue the invaders through the desolated counties for want of provisions. When the Scots returned the people of the North determined to fight for themselves. Thurstan, the aged Archbishop of York, summoned the people of every parish by the sign of the cross to rally for the defence of their homes. Near Northallerton the two armies met. To inspirit the English the banners of three Saxon saints were fastened to a mast and set up on a four-wheeled car. Above the flags was a crucifix, and just below it was a silver box containing the consecrated wafer. The English gathered round this standard and hurled back the advancing Scots, 12,000 of whom were killed. This battle is known as the *Battle of the Standard*.

Stephen's whole reign was occupied by these contests for the throne with her and with David of Scotland. In order to gain adherents to his cause he was obliged to make many concessions to the Norman barons. They ex-

torted leave to fortify their castles, which they filled with their turbulent soldiers and greatly oppressed the people. England was at length invaded by Mathilda's son Henry (in 1153). He met the army of Stephen at Wallingford, but no battle took place, for the adherents of both chiefs were thoroughly tired of the quarrel. Just at this time, Eustace, Stephen's only son, suddenly died, and Stephen, having now no one to fight for, agreed to a peace. It was settled that Stephen should wear the crown as long as he lived, and that Henry should receive the homage of the barons as heir-apparent.

With the reign of Henry I. the Norman kings had reached their highest pitch of power. After him their kingdom passed away, for a short time, to the House of Blois, then to that of Anjou. With both these houses they had long been connected, with both an hereditary and deadly hostility had existed from the earliest times. But, though the Norman power thus slipped away from the direct descendants of Rollo, the Norman influence was far from being destroyed in England. They never were driven out. They coalesced with the English, and lost their individuality in the common nationality. But they long enjoyed the chief positions in the state, and the Norman administrative and executive machinery still lies embedded in the British constitution side by side with the local institutions of the English and Saxons.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

Origin of Feudalism.—When the Franks conquered Gaul they divided the lands among themselves. This estate each man held as a freehold (*allodium*). The king took, of course, the larger share, but he granted from time to time portions of *his* land to his followers, as rewards for their fidelity, in return for acts of special service or to attach them more closely to himself. In return for this grant he exacted a pledge of fidelity. Lands so granted were termed *beneficia*, and though, perhaps, originally held for life, rapidly tended to become hereditary.

In time this custom was extended by the spontaneous act of the free land-owners, who, for the sake of protection in those troubled times of the tenth century, surrendered their freeholds (*allodia*) to some great man to be held for them as *beneficia*.

Thus this beneficiary system gradually became universal, and out of it feudalism arose. The *real* relation, that is, the tie formed through the medium of land tenure, existed between landlord and tenant, and a rent was in many cases paid. But the personal tie of

vassalage was wanting. The tenant, while holding land of another and promising to be faithful to the lord as a return for protection, was in no sense *his man*; he paid him no homage. This, the personal tie, was given by the custom of *commendation*, whereby the inferior put himself under the personal care of his Lord. With head uncovered, with belt ungirt, his sword removed, he placed his hands, kneeling, between those of his lord, promised to become his man, and took the oath of fealty.

This vassalage had originally no relation to land. The tie between man and man was here a purely personal one. Finally, in the union of the beneficiary tie with that of commendation the feudal obligation arose.

Then, in every case where a *beneficium* was granted, or handed over by the owner to be received back again, the tie would be completed by an act of homage, and the tenant would now be bound to his lord by tenure and fealty.

Subinfeudation and Its Consequences.—

Thus society grouped itself round many centres. The great men became tenants to the crown, lesser men became tenants to the greater. The demand made on every tenant by his lord, whether in the person of the king or the baron, was a certain amount of military assistance, or else a rent to be paid in the shape of produce or personal service. The first form of tenure was designated military tenure. The second was known by the name of *socage*. Before the close of the tenth century the whole of Western Christendom was subject to the feudal laws.

There is *no land without its lord*. But this saying is convertible into *no lord without his land*. Man has attached himself to the earth, and has struck root in the rock from which his tower rises. The land is man, and in it dwells true personality. As person it is indivisible; it must remain one and devolve on the eldest. As person, too, immortal, indifferent, and pitiless, it knows not nature. The eldest son is to be sole possessor, or rather, it is he who is possessed; the haughty baron is governed by the customs of his land. His land is his master, and imposes his duties upon him. According to the forcible expression of the times, *he must serve his fief*.

Feudal Incidents—The feudal tenures brought with them feudal burdens which were occasional, in addition to those which were regular. On succeeding to an inheritance a considerable fine was paid to the lord, under the name of the *relief*. On such occasions the contributions of those who held by military tenure consisted of horses and war-like accoutrements. The socage tenant forfeited a year's

rent; the vassal his best beast. Similar exactions were made under the name of *aids* when the king knighted his eldest son or gave his daughter in marriage. It was provided also that the property of state offenders should *escheat* to the crown, and that the same should follow on the failure of heirs.

Feudalism as a System of Government.

—It had long been the custom of the kings to couple their grants of land with rights of independent judicature over the dwellers on that land, and under the successors of Charlemagne the official magistracy became hereditary. They acquired large estates, with the rights of jurisdiction; the smaller land-owners gathered round them for protection, and became their vassals. Thus, as the central power lost its hold, these officials gradually established their independence, until, from the ministerial officers of the Empire, the dukes and counts became the rulers over separate principalities, with semi-royal rights of jurisdiction, coinage, and legislation, enjoying the right of waging private war, and bound to the central authority by the feudal tie alone.

By the union of these two tendencies, then—the centripetal from below, the centrifugal from above—the feudal system was completed.

Each held of another; all were bound to one another by obligation of service, fealty, and defence; and all eventually held of the emperor, the head of the feudal fabric.

Government and justice were organized on the same basis. Each separate lord had his feudal court, with jurisdiction over his immediate vassals and the tenants of his demesne. This jurisdiction varied according to the terms of grant in each particular case.

Difference between the Roman World and the Feudal World.—Nothing can be more strikingly unlike in external aspect than the states of society which are discerned on either side of the stormy interval filled with the movement and the subsidence of the barbarian invasions. Just before it is reached we see a large part of mankind arranged, so to speak, on one vast level surface dominated in every part by the over-shadowing authority of the Roman emperor. On this they lie as so many equal units, connected together by no institutions, which are not assumed to be the creation of positive Roman law; and between them and their sovereign there is nothing but a host of functionaries, who are his servants.

When feudal Europe has been constituted, all this is changed. Everybody has become the subordinate of somebody else higher than himself, and yet exalted above him by no great distance. Society has taken the form of a pyramid. The great multitude of cultivators is at its base, and then it mounts up through ever-narrowing sections till it approaches an apex in the emperor or the pope.

THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES.

THE CAUSES WHICH LED TO THE CRUSADES.

Condition of Western Europe 1000 A.D.

—When the first thousand years of our era were drawing to a close the people in every country in Europe looked with certainty for the destruction of the world. This fearful hope of the arrival of the judgment-day grew with the calamities that ushered in the year 1000, or that followed hard upon. It seemed as if the order of the seasons had been inverted, and the elements had been subjected to new laws. A dreadful pestilence made Aquitaine a desert. From the East to Greece, Italy, France, and England, famine prevailed. Many were driven by hunger to feed on their fellow creatures. The strong waylaid the weak, tore them to pieces, and ate them. In this hopeless condition of the world man's thoughts turned toward Heaven. For all other interests had be-

come worthless; no possession and no existence was safe from rude force; nowhere was to be found, after the splendid line of the Ottos had passed away, a character or a great idea capable of exciting the imagination of a noble heart. In consequence, a state of feeling arose full of the bitterest hatred against this earthly world. Burning with desire for the joys of heaven, men fled from their families and occupations. Monasteries were more filled than ever; new orders were instituted, the rules and the practices rose to the highest degree of asceticism and penance. More particularly in France, Spain, and Italy this feeling was spread through all classes. Pilgrims and palmers became more numerous than ever before.

Many thousands went every year to the famous abbeys of Clugny, or Monte Cassino, to the graves of the Apostles, to Rome, or to St. Iago de Compostella; and, above all,

crossed the sea to Palestine, to the land which Christ trod, and to the rock which is said to have been his grave. High and low took part with equal zeal, all filled with the same belief that they stood on the threshold of heaven, and all equally horror-struck that unbelieving Mohammedans were desecrating this holy place.

Christianity becomes Aggressive.—When religious enthusiasm had impregnated mankind to such a degree, anger against the unbeliever arose of its own accord, and war against the false religion appeared to be the most holy and praiseworthy action. Burgundians, Provençals, and Normans helped the King of Castile to besiege the Caliph of Cordova, and to take Toledo. The Normans from Naples settled themselves in Sicily; and the fleets of Pisa and Genoa, decked with papal banners, stormed the harbor of Palermo. Thus the Christian faith became, in time, the badge of a great system of national defensive and offensive alliance, which was animated by a sacred fire, and eager for deadly warfare against all unbelievers. If, from the seventh to the ninth centuries, Islam had harassed the Christian nations by its vigorous aggressions, now, in the eleventh, came the day of reckoning, in a no less violent attack, on the part of Christendom, upon the whole Mohammedan world.

The Leader of Aggressive Christianity.—Every great war must have a commander-in-chief to direct and a ruler to command it. In the days of Charlemagne and Otto the Great, Christendom possessed such a leader in the person of the emperor. Now that was at an end, for the imperial power was barely tolerated by the German and Italian nobility, and not recognized at all by the rest of Europe. To fill up this void, and give to the Latin world a new head, the same ecclesiastical spirit which had roused the war against Islam was now at work. Now that the emperor had become incapable of representing the Christian world, the pope was quite ready to grasp the temporal, as well as the spiritual, power, and in the character of chief military commander of Europe to begin the crusade against Mohammedan Asia. Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) was the first pope who assumed this position in the face of Europe in its full force and extent. Scarcely had he grasped the reins of ecclesiastical government (1073) when he developed a universal genius for ruling. He had the knowledge, the ability, and the will to do everything. He became a reformer of the Church, a statesman and a conqueror, a demagogue and a diplomatist, all with equal vigor and masterly skill. In the

height of his enthusiasm he went further than any man had dared to dream of doing before him. "All princes," he wrote, "shall kiss the pope's foot; he alone shall wear the imperial insignia; he alone is answerable toward God for the sins of kings." He accordingly demanded, on no other title than this religious one, the oath of allegiance from the King of England, declared Spain to be the property of St. Peter, and summoned the King of Poland to appear before his tribunal. For these schemes, which embraced the whole of Europe, he strengthened himself by retirement and daily, sincere, and anxious prayer. Fortified anew by devotion, he again rushed into the thick of the fight, in order to enforce, by worldly weapons, that obedience which he had already demanded from kings as his due. He gained adherents in all countries, and bound them by solemn oaths and military organization to follow his guidance. Not satisfied with establishing a universal supremacy over crowned heads, he took their subjects into his own allegiance. He was on the high-road to the destruction of all the existing governments of the world, in order that he might embody them in his great spiritual dominion. Gregory announced the temporal supremacy of the popes as a new spiritual and war-like impersonation of Christianity.

Gregory's Plan.—The pope counted not only upon the obedience of the Latin nations, but also on bringing back the Greek schism to its allegiance; and then upon leading both combined to a decisive attack upon Islam. A motive was furnished by a war-like movement which broke out in the bosom of Islam itself. At two points its dominions had been invaded by unruly hordes of half-savage tribes. Among the Kabyles in the African desert arose the empire of the Morabites, who, after subjugating the whole district between the Syrtes, the Sahara, and the ocean, burst upon the Christians of Spain in a furious invasion. Simultaneously the wild tribes of the Seljukes poured in upon Asia, laid waste the possessions of the Caliph of Bagdad, and advanced on Asia Minor and the dominions of the Greek emperor, whom they, in a few campaigns, drove across the Dardanelles in disgraceful flight. It seemed as if the times of Musa had returned, and Christendom was again to be threatened both from the East and from the West. But Gregory VII. felt himself more secure than Charles Martel, and resolved to anticipate the attack. In France he pleaded with great effect to obtain assistance for the Spaniards; in Rome he got together, in 1074, an army of 50,000 men, faithful followers of St. Peter, whom he intended to lead in person to

the relief of Constantinople and the destruction of the Turks. He called upon the emperor, Henry IV., to help him in this undertaking, and at the same time expressed his intention of first bringing back the Greeks and Armenians to the unity of the Church of Rome; after which he should lead the triumphant army to the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. It was the first, and for many subsequent centuries the last, time that so vast and so methodical a plan of attack upon Asia had been conceived in Christian Europe.

Pope and Emperor.—Gregory VII. was not, however, destined to reap these laurels, for within a few months the dispute with Henry IV. broke out. In 1074 the pope assembled a council, by which it was forbidden to the prelates to receive investiture of a layman, for reform of Church or clergy was impossible so long as all the high dignitaries of the Church were dependent on a monarch. On the other side, half of the land and wealth of Germany was in the hands of bishops and abbots, who would now be freed from the monarch's control.

Henry, disregarding the papal authority, was summoned to Rome; but he held a diet at Worms, and pronounced the deposition of the pope. To this Gregory replied by procuring his deposition and the election of another, Rudolf of Suabia. Henry now promised submission, and in the winter of 1077 went to Italy. The pope was at the Castle of Canossa, and there, after keeping the penitent Henry three days waiting at the gate, he gave him absolution. But the terms imposed upon him were not kept. Henry set up a rival pope, and, after several unsuccessful attempts, entered Rome in 1084, had himself crowned emperor by his own pope, and besieged Gregory in St. Angelo. He was forced to fly from Rome before the renewed power of the emperor and died during his flight (1085) under the protection of the Normans of Naples.

Although the emperor, Henry IV., attained all that is attainable by war and policy, his triumph was not as complete as we might infer. The idea of Gregory conquered the world, while Gregory himself died a fugitive.

Ten years after his death his second successor, Urban II., was able to take the initiative in the general affairs of the West.

THE CRUSADES.

Immediate Causes of the First Crusade.

—In the last decennium of the eleventh century the Seljuks in Asia made alarming progress. They took Mecca and Jerusalem. The pilgrims complained bitterly of the excesses

committed by the brutal soldiery at the tomb of the Saviour. The Eastern emperor, Alexius, sent the most pressing entreaties for help to Pope Urban II., saying, that if he did not wish to see Christianity perish in the East he must render him assistance.

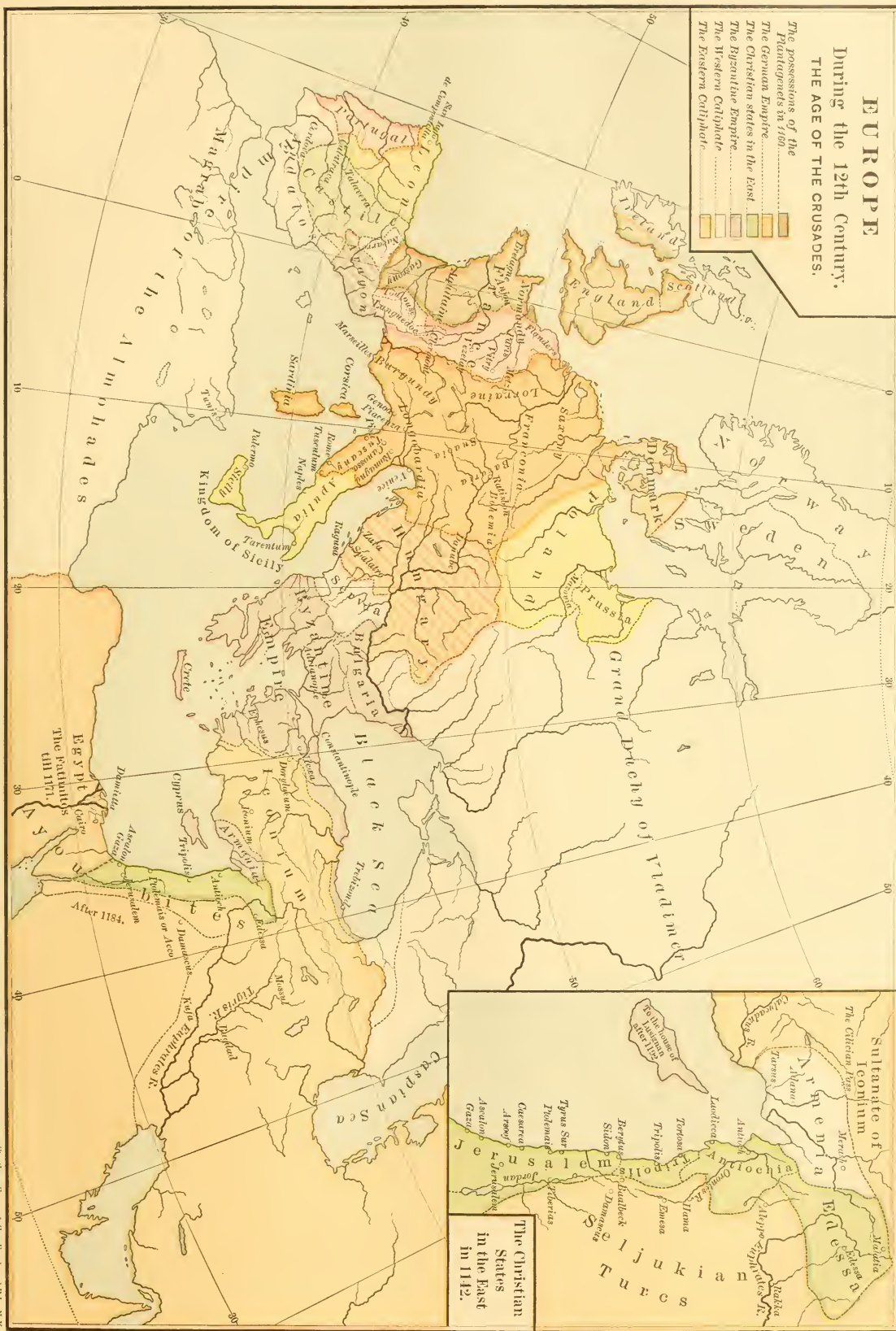
After making a preliminary announcement of the emperor's demand, and of his own intentions, in a council at Piacenza, the pope crossed the Alps (November, 1094), and held a great council at Clermont; at the end of this he called upon the people assembled to aid him in delivering the Holy Sepulchre from the infidels. More than 300,000 men fastened the cross upon their shoulders, and in a few months the cry, "*God wills it*," had flown from Clermont over half Europe. Everywhere the greatest activity prevailed; princes assembled their vassals, knights their retainers; Godfrey of Bouillon was collecting an army in Lorraine; Hugo of Vermandois, Robert of Flanders, and Robert of Normandy marshalled the French, Normans, and English; Raymond of Toulouse led the Provençals and Gascons; and Bohemond of Tarent, the Norman knights of Naples. Pope Urban II. had secured to himself the leading position in the enterprise by naming the Bishop Adhemar of Puy as his legate and representative with the army, and by officially announcing to Alexius the forthcoming help against the Turks.

The First Crusade.—The crusade was opened by an irregular van of about three hundred thousand men, who, in four bands, marched down the Danube to Constantinople. They were led by Walter the Penniless, Peter the Hermit, and others. Two bands only reached Constantinople (the other two having been destroyed by the Hungarians), and crossed over into Asia, where they were ultimately cut to pieces by the Turks.

In May, 1097, the Crusaders were in Asia, where Nicæa was vainly invested for seven weeks, when it was surrendered not to them but to Alexius. After their departure, the Crusaders annihilated the Turks near Dorylæum. They then marched diagonally across Asia Minor; then, turning southward, they attacked the most important and best fortified of all the Syrian towns, Antioch. Seven months were consumed in its siege. At length (June, 1098), they took it, to be besieged in their turn by 200,000 Saracens. On June 28th this vast host was defeated before the walls of Antioch, and the way was then opened to Jerusalem. And now the army, in fact without head or leader, rushed wildly on toward its original destination. On June 7, 1099, the town was surrounded, and taken by storm on July 15th. The Christian fury against the infidels vented

EUROPE
During the 12th Century,
THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES.

*The possessions of the
Plantagenets in 1160.....*
The German Empire.....
The Christian states in the East
The Byzantine Empire.....
The Western Caliphate.....
The Eastern Caliphate.....



itself in a sanguinary struggle; they then, with tears of rapture, and in a state of ecstatic piety, threw themselves down to pray at the Holy Sepulchre, surrounded with heaps of the slain. After eight days passed in the intoxication of victory, the princes met to choose a ruler. They offered the crown of the new kingdom to Raymond of Toulouse, who, however, declared that he was unworthy to wear an earthly crown in so holy a place. At last they applied to Godfrey of Bouillon, who, although he, like Raymond, refused the title of king, accepted the office, and called himself Protector of the Holy Sepulchre. He succeeded in beating an Egyptian army near Ascalon, and thus secured the southern frontier of the kingdom. After that, however, it became impossible to restrain the masses of pilgrims who, after the fulfilment of their vow, longed to return home.

The Kingdom of Jerusalem and the Second Crusade.—The political results of this first crusade were two:

I. The restoration of the best part of Asia Minor to the Eastern Empire.

II. The conversion of Syria into the feudal kingdom of Jerusalem, chiefly French, with vassal countries: Edessa, Antiochia, and afterward, Tripoli.

The King of Jerusalem had no easy task. With an army consisting at the most of seven thousand horse and five thousand foot, he could hardly keep his own in the midst of a scarcely conquered hostile population, and surrounded by powerful and naturally implacable foes. Especially since the Turkish possessions from the Tigris to the Lebanon were all united by Noor-ed-Deen, the Emir of Mosul. His taking of Edessa in 1146 caused the Second Crusade. Emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. of France were the leaders. Misled by Greek scouts, the army of Conrad was cut to pieces by the Turks near Iconium; that of Louis was wrecked among the defiles of the Pisidian Mountains. The relics of the two armies made their way into Syria, where, in co-operation with the Christian princes of Antioch and Jerusalem, they laid siege to Damascus, which they were unable to take. It was an utter failure, and in 1149 emperor and king returned to the West, having lost in two years about a million of men.

A still greater enemy of the Christians arose in Salah-ed-Deen (Saladin), the founder of the dynasty of the Ayoubites, who, since 1184, was sole ruler from the sources of the Nile as far as the river Tigris. He began the last decisive attack upon the Christians. On July 5, 1187, the Christian army was annihilated by him at Tiberias. The terrific news of the defeat

spread through the land, destroying all remaining strength or courage. Towns and castles opened their gates wherever the victorious troops appeared. Jerusalem, which, as a holy city, Saladin wished to take by treaty, capitulated on October 3d. Saladin's career of victory did not yet extend as far as Tripoli and Antioch, but the kingdom of Jerusalem, the pride and centre of the Christian rule, was lost.

The Third Crusade.—Although after the failure of the Second Crusade the interest felt by the Western nations in the kingdom of Jerusalem had greatly diminished, still the news of the loss of the Holy City fell like a thunderbolt on men's minds. Once more before its final extinction the flame which had kindled the mystic war of God blazed high in the hearts of men. Pope Gregory VIII. sent legates through every country, and through them watched the progress of arming, imposed a universal tax called Saladin's tithe, and acted throughout as though he had been the monarch of a large war-like and well-administered kingdom. The effect was wonderful. The monarchs of France and England met at Gisors and vowed to abandon their earthly quarrels, and to become warriors of the everlasting God. In Germany the aged Emperor Barbarossa put on the cross, and collected together a mass of nearly a hundred thousand pilgrims. All the Western nations rose to arms, and their ferocious war-cry was answered in the East by a voice of defiance quite as eager. Saladin had invoked the religious zeal of all Mohammedans, and had besides concluded alliances with the Christian rulers of Byzantium, Cyprus, and Armenia. The whole East, from the Danube to the Indus, from the Caspian Sea to the sources of the Nile, prepared with one intent to withstand the great invasion of Europe. The Eastern Christians, continually reinforced by the irregular van of the great Western armies, determined to begin the attack at once.

The Siege of Acco or Ptolemais.—On August 28, 1189, King Guy commenced the siege of the strong maritime fortress of Ptolemais. Saladin hastened to the spot with his army, and in his turn surrounded the Christian camp, which lay in a wide semicircle round Ptolemais, and was defended by strong intrenchments. It formed an iron ring round the besieged town, which Saladin, spite of all his efforts, could not break through. But the winter brought innumerable hardships to the Christians. In that small space between the city and the camp of Saladin more than a hundred thousand men were crowded together, with insufficient shelter and uncertain

supplies of wretched food. Pestilential diseases soon broke out, which swept away thousands.

Saladin retreated from this deadly vicinity to more airy quarters on the adjacent hills. His troops also suffered from the severe weather, but were far better supplied than the Christians with the necessities of life. The Christians, however, held on; they knew the great emperor was approaching. In June, 1190, his army had entered Cilicia and was preparing to cross the rapid mountain torrent of the Seleph. While attempting to cross on horseback, Barbarossa was swept away by the stream and drowned (1190). The highest hopes were destroyed by his lamentable death. The troops arrived at Antioch in a state of the deepest dejection. Thence the greater part returned home and a pestilence broke out among the rest. Barbarossa's son Frederick reached the camp before Ptolemais with 5,000 men, and soon afterward followed his father to the grave. But shortly after this the French and English monarchs arrived with their fleet, and to the Crusaders thus reinforced, Ptolemais surrendered, after a siege of twenty-three months (July 12, 1191).

The taking of Ptolemais was the sole result of the third crusade. Rivalries and jealousies sprang up among the Christian leaders, especially between the kings of France and England. Philip Augustus abandoned the crusade and returned to France. The lion-hearted Richard remained some time longer, and at last agreed to a truce with Saladin, by which a strip of land on the coast from Joppa to Acre was given to the Christians, and pilgrimages to the holy places were allowed. Richard, on his return, was taken prisoner by Leopold, Duke of Austria, and by order of Emperor Henry VI. was kept in a tower for thirteen months, and only released on the payment of a heavy ransom and rendering homage to the emperor.

Consequences of the First Three Crusades.—The crusades had left their mark upon the world, but no such mark as their authors had intended. The Holy Land had not been recovered from the infidels; the Saracens had not been converted. It had been found practically impossible for Christians to treat the Moslem in the way the children of Israel were taught to treat the Canaanites—as men with whom no peace was to be made. The Christians of that day adopted too easily a very different principle, and regarded their enemies, for some time, as men with whom no faith was to be kept. But even this was a rule impossible to be maintained. Relations necessarily grew up between the

opposing combatants, and ere long the commercial cities of the Mediterranean found the infidel a very good customer. They longed to get possession of Constantinople, on account of its commanding position between Europe and Asia, which offered, to whoever should seize it, a monopoly of commerce, and the sovereignty of the seas. Of all the Latins, the Venetians alone could effect this great enterprise, unless their rivals in the Levantine trade, the Genoese, anticipated them.

The Fourth Crusade.—At the instance of Pope Innocent III. a crusade, directed originally against Egypt, was undertaken by powerful French barons, aided by Baldwin, Count of Flanders, and Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat. Transports were obtained from the Venetians by agreeing to take Zara, a city of Dalmatia, for the doge Dandolo. From this moment these crusaders constituted, in the hands of Venice, a blind and brutal force, which it launched against the Greek Empire. They were ignorant alike of the motives and secret intelligence of the Venetians, and of the state of the empire they were about to attack. Apparently at the urgent request of Alexius, son of the Eastern emperor, Isaac Angelus, who had been dethroned by his brother, the Crusaders went from Zara to Constantinople with the Venetian fleet of 480 sail, captured the city, and replaced Alexius and his father on the throne (1203). It had never been the intention of the Venetians that the crusade should end thus.

The new emperor could only satisfy the requisitions of his liberators by ruining his subjects. The Greeks murmured, the Crusaders pressed and threatened. In the meantime, they insulted the people in a thousand ways, as well as the emperor of their own making. Finally they set fire to some houses, and the flames spreading, the conflagration raged over the thickest and most populous quarter of the city, and lasted eight days. This event put the finishing stroke to the exasperation of the people, who rose up against the emperor whose restoration had brought so many evils in its train. Isaac died in the midst of the revolt, and his son Alexius was murdered by the Greeks. The city was then taken a second time by the Crusaders, its palaces were plundered, and its monuments destroyed. The barbarians scattered the bones of the emperors, and when they came to Justinian's tomb, found with surprise that the body of the legislator betrayed no signs of decay or putrefaction.

The Latin Empire.—Who was to have the honor of seating himself on Justinian's throne, and of founding the new empire? The

worthiest was the aged Dandolo. But the Venetians were opposed to this. What these merchants desired were, posts, commercial depots, a long chain of factories, which might secure them the whole of the great eastern highway. They chose for their own share the maritime coast and the islands, together with three out of the eight quarters of Constantinople, with the fantastic title of "*Lords of one-fourth and a half of the Roman Empire.*"

The empire, reduced to one-fourth of its limits, was bestowed on Baldwin, Count of Flanders, a descendant of Charlemagne. Boniface, of Montferrat, became king of Thessalonica. The greatest part of the empire was portioned out into fiefs.

The Asiatic part of the Eastern Empire was not conquered, however, but formed two distinct Greek realms. Theodore Lascaris became emperor at Nicæa, Alexis Comnenus emperor at Trebisonde.

The results of this memorable event were not as great as might have been imagined. The Latin empire of Constantinople lasted even a shorter time than the Latin kingdom of Jerusalem, for Michael Palæologus, of the Nicæan Empire, put an end to it in 1261. Venice alone derived material advantage from it, which she did largely.

The Fifth Crusade.—Four different expeditions bear the name of the Fifth Crusade.

1st. *The Children's Crusade* in 1212, when thousands of French and German boys made their way to Marseilles and the Italian seaports in order to be conveyed thence to the Holy Land. But few returned, many perished by the way, and still more were carried off to slave markets.

2d. An abortive expedition for the recovery of the Holy Land, by Andrew, King of Hungary, in 1217.

3d. An expedition for the conquest of Damietta in Egypt, by John of Brienne, which was taken, but lost again in 1221.

4th. The crusade of Emperor Frederick II., who had promised at his coronation to undertake a crusade, but continually had postponed it. When, finally, (1227) he was about to start, he professed to be unable to proceed by a contagious disease in his army, from which he himself was suffering. Pope Gregory IX. excommunicated him now for continued procrastination. Nevertheless, the emperor, in the following year, embarked on his crusade. His vigor as a soldier, and still more, his tact in conciliating the Saracens, enabled him to get possession of Jerusalem, where he crowned himself. He received from the sultan, El Kâmil, Nazareth and a strip of land reaching to the coast, together with Sidon. After the

departure of Frederick, the Christians in Palestine enjoyed the fruits of his military prowess and wise policy, living in quiet and prosperity in the cities and territories which Frederick had compelled the sultan to cede. This prosperity, however, was suddenly put an end to by the violent irruption into Syria and Egypt of the Mamelukes.

The Mamelukes.—They were slaves (as the word *mamlūk* imports), purchased by the sultans and trained as soldiers for the purpose of forming their body-guard and the nucleus of their army. They placed one of their number, Melik es-Saleh, on the throne, hoping to govern him without difficulty. But when the new sultan found his authority sufficiently well-established, he dismissed them from his service and formed a new body-guard of the Bahrite Mamelukes, who were so called from the fact that their barracks were situated on the island of Roda, in the Nile, or *Bahr*.

With these Bahrite Mamelukes he attacks his uncle, Ismail, the ruler of Damascus. The latter allies himself with other Syrian princes and with the Christians of Palestine, but is defeated by Melik es-Saleh, whose army had been reinforced by the Turkish mercenaries of the Prince of Charesmia, who had recently been dethroned by the Mongols. The Egyptians take Jerusalem, Damascus, Tiberias, and Ascalon (1249).

The Sixth Crusade.—Louis IX. of France, roused by the loss of Jerusalem, and with a view to prevent the Egyptians from further encroaching on the Holy Land, undertakes a campaign against Egypt, takes Damietta; but, while marching to Cairo, is taken prisoner, together with his army, at Mansura. They were, however, allowed to ransom themselves. This provoked the rage of the Bahrite Mamelukes. They murdered the sultan, and appointed their own commander, Ibek, to the Egyptian throne (1250).

Bebars, who had risen from being a slave to the position of leader of the Mamelukes, was one of the ablest of this dynasty. In the course of four campaigns he annihilates the last remnants of the kingdom of Jerusalem, and rules with sagacity, moderation, and justice. He brings to Cairo the last representative of the Abasside Chalifs, who had recently been dethroned by the Mongols (1258), recognizes his authority, and permits him nominally to occupy the throne.

The Seventh and Last Crusade.—Not disheartened by his former failure, the pious Louis determines to make another attempt to annihilate the Mamelukes, the terrible enemies of Christendom. He perished, however,

with the greater part of his army, at Tunis (1270).

After this failure the pope failed in all his endeavors to excite any enthusiasm for the Holy War. One Syrian fortress after the other fell into the hands of the victorious Mussulmans, until at length, and last of all, the dearly won Ptolemais (Acco) was captured after an obstinate resistance, in 1292, just at the time when Pope Boniface VIII. took the first steps toward his great conflict with Philip the Fair, King of France, which resulted in the deepest humiliation of the papal power. The system of Gregory VII. declined simultaneously in Europe and in Asia.

The Three Ecclesiastical Military Orders.—Nothing can more strikingly evince the ascendancy of Europe than the resistance of the Frankish settlements in Syria against the whole power of the Moslems. Several of their victories were obtained against such disparity of numbers that they may be compared with whatever is most illustrious in history or romance. These, however, were less due to the descendants of the first Crusaders than to those volunteers from Europe whom martial ardor and religious zeal impelled to the service. It was the penance commonly imposed upon men of rank to serve a number of years under the banner of the cross. Thus a perpetual supply of warriors was poured in from Europe. Of these defenders, the most renowned had enrolled themselves in one of the three ecclesiastical military orders. They were: *the Knights of the Hospital of St. John* (black mantle, white cross), *the Knights Templars* (white mantle, red cross), and *the Teutonic Knights of St. Mary* (white mantle, black cross). The orders of the Temple and of St. John owed—the former their foundation, the latter their power and wealth—to noble knights. They were military and aristocratic brotherhoods, associated together in defence of the holy places. In battle the two orders took, by turn, the van and the rear, those who had newly taken the cross, and were unaccustomed to Asiatic warfare, being stationed between them.

The first founders of the Teutonic order were honest burghers of Lubeck and Bremen. After the disasters which followed the death of Barbarossa, when the army was wasting away with disease and famine before Acre, these merchants ran up the sails of their ships into tents to receive the sick and starving. Duke Frederick (Barbarossa's son), seeing the advantage of a German order, both to maintain the German interests and to relieve the necessities of German pilgrims, raised them to an order of knighthood.

General Results of the Crusades.—They helped to break down the power of the feudal aristocracy and give prominence to the royal power. The cities received, in return for the contributions and loans they made to their overlords, charters conferring special and valuable privileges. They gave great spur to the commercial enterprise of the merchants of the Italian cities. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa obtained possession of most of the seaports and islands of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean and of the Black Sea, the command of the latter securing to their merchants a monopoly of the Northern trade and a considerable share in that of Asia.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE DURING THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES.

Henry II. and Thomas à Becket.—Henry II., the son of Mathilda and Geoffrey of Anjou, was the first Plantagenet King of England. The family name of Plantagenet was given to Fulk IV., first Count of Anjou, because he was accustomed to wear in his cap a sprig of broom (called in French *plante de genet*, from the Latin *planta genista*). When Henry II. ascended the throne of England, in 1145, he was already master of a third of our present France. He had inherited Anjou and Touraine from his father, Maine and Normandy from his mother, and the seven provinces of the south (*Poitou, Saintonge, Auvergne, Périgord, the Limousin, the Angoumois, and Guyenne*), as the dowry of his wife Eleanor, divorced queen of Charles VII. of France. Henry began his reign by curbing the power of the nobility. Their numerous castles (built in King Stephen's time) were destroyed; order was restored in the kingdom by the appointment of royal commissioners to administer justice; and the good will of the people was gained by the grant of charters to many of the cities and chief towns. Henry's chief adviser during the first six years of his reign was Thomas à Becket, a person of great natural talent and most agreeable manners, who had acquired great favor with Theobald, Archbishop of Canterbury. When age and infirmity warned the primate to retire from the chancellorship he urged the king to bestow it on Becket, who very soon rose so high in the royal esteem that Henry and Becket grew to be on such terms of intimacy as rarely take place between sovereign and subject. On Theobald's death the king at once forced on the monks of Canterbury, and on Thomas himself, his election as archbishop. The clergy opposed the nomination as unsuitable—as scarcely decent. But, after the delay of some thirteen months, Becket was duly consecrated. The secret of this proceeding no doubt was

that Henry had good reason to expect that Becket would be found as subservient to his wishes in relation to the Church as he had been in relation to the State.

But from the hour of consecration he seemed to have become another man. As he had hitherto rivalled the courtiers in splendor, pleasure, and pomp, so would he now by strictness of life equal the sanctity of the Saints; as hitherto to the king, so did he now attach himself to the interests of the Church. The grand strife began when Henry proposed his scheme for superseding the Church courts, with their exclusive right of justice over the whole body of educated men throughout the realm. This scheme was contained in sixteen canons known under the name of the *Constitutions of Clarendon*. Their design was to subject the clergy on all questions relating to temporal matters, and concerning the interest of the laity, to the authority of the crown. Another constitution prohibited all appeals to Rome without the consent of the king; another required that no dignified clergyman should leave the kingdom without the king's permission; and another declared that no tenant-in-chief of the crown, neither an officer of the king's household, should be excommunicated without the king's approval.

After a passionate refusal the primate at last set his seal to the *Constitutions*, but his assent was soon retracted, and the king's savage resentment threw the whole moral advantage of the position in the primate's hand. On October 4, 1164, Becket, after reading mass, appeared before the royal council at Northampton without his archiepiscopal dress, but cross in hand. He forbade the earl, who wished to announce the judgment to him, to speak, since no layman had power to sit in judgment on his spiritual father; he again put himself under protection of God and the Roman Church, and then passed from the court to a church close by, from whence he escaped to the Continent. For six years he remained an exile. Then Henry, under threat of interdict, was reconciled with Becket, who, in 1170, returned to England. But that year he was again embroiled with the king and was murdered by four knights of Henry's court in consequence of Henry's passionate outbreak against him (December 29, 1170). In order to obtain absolution for the rash words which led to the crime, the king promised to abolish all customs hostile to the Church. Two years later, when attacked by his sons and the King of Scots, Henry did penance at Becket's tomb and submitted to be scourged by the clergy of the Cathedral. Becket was canonized as a saint and martyr by the pope in 1173 A.D.

Henry survived the murder of Becket almost twenty years, during which the southeastern part of Ireland acknowledged him as lord (1171), and the King of Scots, William the Lion, did homage to him as his suzerain (1175). The last years of his life were embittered by the conduct of his sons, who conspired with the King of France, Philip Augustus, against their father.

Philip Augustus of France.—The Capetian kings offered themselves to the French people as the born defenders of the weakest, as the guardians of order. This characteristic of royalty appears distinctly for the first time in the contest of Louis VI. Since the twelfth century there was someone in the world who wished that the roads should be safe, that the unarmed rustics should not be killed, and that no villages should be burned, and that man was the King of France. Louis VII., the son of Louis VI., did nothing but make a very brilliant marriage. Eleanor of Aquitaine brought him as her dowry almost all the South of France. Unfortunately this marriage did not produce the expected results. It was soon broken by a divorce, and then Eleanor married the King of England, Henry II., who found himself now a much greater lord in France than the king. But a new opinion became established, a new point of law, which did more for him than his marriage with Eleanor. The communal towns claimed to be subject directly to the king, which simply meant, it is for the king to decide the questions between the city and its seigneur, for the latter cannot be at once the judge and a party in the suit. Although, therefore, the direct possessions of Philip Augustus on his accession in 1180 could not be compared with those of Henry II., his moral power as defender of the French communes was immense. Philip Augustus availed himself of this to break the power of the Plantagenets.

The absence of Richard, successor of Henry II., first as Crusader, and then as prisoner in Germany, enabled Philip Augustus to invade Normandy. John, traitor to his brother, as to his father, had joined the French king; while the lords of Aquitaine rose in revolt under the troubadour, Bertrand de Born. Richard on his return, could do nothing but hold Philip in check on the Norman frontier, surprise his treasure at Fretehil, and reduce to submission the rebels of Aquitaine. A truce (1194-1196), which these successes wrested from Philip, gave him breathing space for a final blow at his opponent. During this truce he erected on the eastern border of Normandy a formidable entrenched camp to cover Rouen. At a height of 30 feet above the Seine rose the

of Philip Augustus, with a French army, to their assistance. This army occupied Southern England when John died. But the Earl of Pembroke, who became protector to the young king, succeeded in reconciling many of the discontented chiefs, and in compelling Louis to withdraw from the kingdom.

Five years later this Louis (VIII.) mounted the French throne, which he occupied only three years (1223-1226), perishing of camp fever in the war against Raymond of Toulouse, the aider and abettor of the Albigensian heresy.

Crusade against the Albigenses.—In the border countries where Christendom, Islam, and Persian fire-worship met, horrible heresies had sprung up. A certain Manes, a Persian who lived in the third century after Christ, after which the heretics were called Manichæans, had taught the belief in two distinct powers, one of good and one of evil, both eternal, and of equal authority.

The Manichæans, driven from Asia, had settled in Bulgaria, where nominally they became Christians, but boldly denied transubstantiation, rejected confession, and also the sacrament of marriage. Following the course of the Danube, they had spread over Western Europe, but their stronghold was Languedoc.

They were known as Albigenses, from one of their chief places, *Alby*, in Languedoc. Pope Innocent III. at first employed against them only spiritual weapons. Before proscribing, he tried to convert them. Among the most zealous of the missionaries were Pierre de Castelnau and Raoul, both Cistercian monks, and Diego Azèbes, Bishop of Osma, and his sub-prior, Dominic, both Spaniards. They began that course of austerity and of preaching among the people which was ultimately to make of Dominic a saint and the founder of a great religious order.

In 1205 Pierre de Castelnau repaired to Toulouse to demand of Raymond VI. a formal promise to suppress heresy.

One of Raymond's knights overtook the monk on the Rhone and stabbed him. This murder was the signal for war against Raymond VI., a war undertaken on the plea of a personal crime, but in reality for the extirpation of heresy in Southern France.

Rome cried for help to the warriors of Northern France (1208). A war, distinguished even among wars of religion by merciless atrocity, destroyed the Albigensian heresy, and with that heresy the prosperity, the civilization, the literature, the national existence of Languedoc (1208-1244).

Louis IX.—The son and successor of Louis VIII. effected what his father and grandfather

had attempted in vain, by uniting to the crown the territory of the counts of Toulouse. He gave, indeed, the government of the county, together with the heiress, to his brother Alfonso; but the latter dying without issue, it devolved upon the crown (1271). The kings had already acquired possession, by purchase, of the domains which Simon of Montfort had acquired in the mountains of Languedoc, in the course of his crusade against the Albigenses, and which Montfort l'Amaury found himself unable to maintain. Louis IX. obtained by purchase the important county of Macon (1238). While this king was yet a minor, his prudent mother, Blanche, of Castile, had given assistance to the Count of Champagne against his powerful enemies on the condition that he should surrender to the crown the counties of Blois and Chartres. Thus the domains of the French king became everywhere extended in the vicinity of the most powerful vassals, so that it was henceforward as difficult for them to make any effort against him individually as to unite their forces in any common attempt to resist the royal authority. In order to confirm this authority still further he endeavored to render it respectable by a strict administration of justice. The king was the acknowledged protector of public justice, and every man who was refused his right was sure to obtain it from the royal bailiff.

Louis IX. endeared himself to his subjects by the simplicity of his manners. After a fair, held upon the sod, he seated himself under an oak, in the forest of Vincennes, and gave hearing and redress to every Frenchman. He established laws (*Établissements*), the violation of which seemed to be an act of impiety. The cases presented for the royal decision (*Cas Royaux*) were multiplied; for what Frenchman would not gladly receive judgment from the good king Louis. Formerly the monarchy was founded on the force of arms, but now the royal authority was established on the virtues of the sovereign.

Henry III., King of England.—Henry made several attempts to recover the possessions of the English crown in France. The first was in 1224, and was partially successful. The second, in 1229, was more considerable, and was conducted by the king in person, but ended in failure and disgrace. Not less signal was the disgrace which attended an expedition into France in 1242. An expedition into Gascony in 1254 had a somewhat better termination. It sufficed to put an end to the attempts of the kings of Castile to assume the sovereignty over that province. But the hold of the English crown on those territories was slight, and the Normans in England at this

time had ceased to feel any deep interest in the connection which the court strove to perpetuate between the two countries.

Nothing is more observable during this reign than the complaints made against favoritism and especially against favoritism as bestowed upon foreigners. This weakness in the king, together with his habitual insincerity and his want of courage, economy, and self-government, exposed him to much humiliation and suffering. His reign extended to more than half a century (1216-1271) and was filled with civil war or with the intrigues of faction. It was natural that the royal authority should

decline during this period. The doctrine of resistance became familiar to the minds of all men. It is in these circumstances that the *House of Commons* makes its appearance. On January 20, 1265, Simon de Montfort summoned a parliament at London in the king's name. In addition to the great barons and prelates he summoned two knights from each shire and two deputies from each city and borough. They all sat in the same chamber and continued to do so until the reign of Edward III., when the *Commons* assembled separately, while the barons formed the House of Lords.

HOHENSTAUFEN AND GUELPHS.

GERMANY AND ITALY DURING THE AGE OF THE CRUSADES.

Lothar the Saxon.—At the death of Emperor Henry V., without direct heir, in 1125, Frederick of Hohenstaufen, his eldest nephew, inherited, in virtue of this relationship, the patrimonial estates of the Salic House, which, added to his large possessions in his own Duchy of Suabia, made him one of the most powerful princes of his time. He expected to succeed his uncle on the imperial throne. But the great unpopularity of the last Salic emperors, and a disposition to make the empire elective, were skilfully used by Henry the Proud, head of the house of Guelph, and Duke of Bavaria, to bring about the election of Lothar the Saxon.

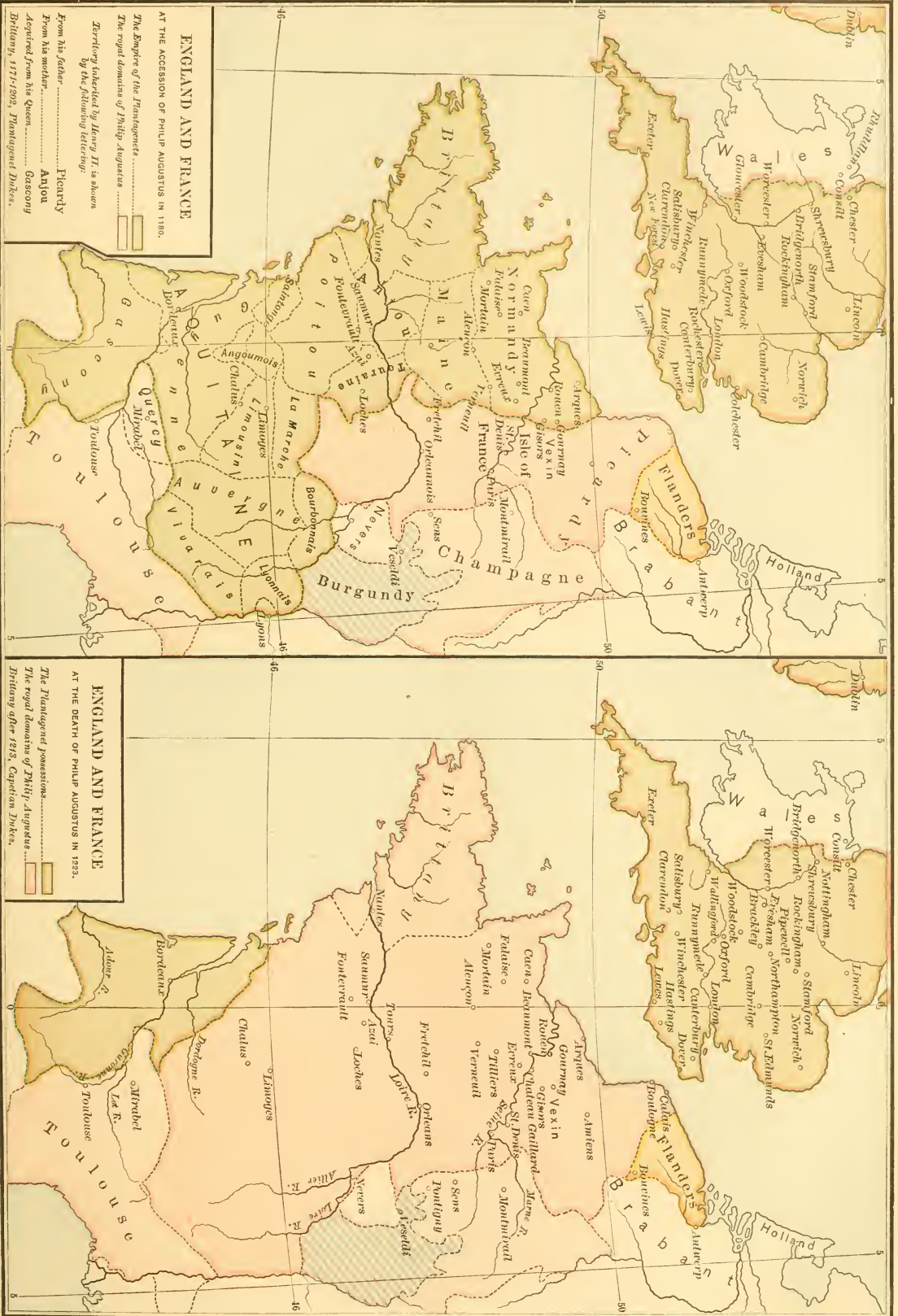
Henry was rewarded for his zeal, not only by the hand of Gertrude, Lothar's daughter and heiress, but also by the Saxon duchy. Thus were united in the Guelph family the two large duchies of Bavaria and Saxony. Lothar seemed to have only two objects: to oppress and humble the nephews of the late emperor, and to secure the succession to the empire for his son-in-law, Henry the Proud.

Conrad III.—But the amazing preponderance of the house of Guelph alienated the princes from it, and on Lothar's death (1137) they conferred the imperial crown on Conrad of Hohenstaufen. One of the first acts of Conrad III. was to order Henry the Proud to resign one of his duchies, since two could not legally be held by the same person. On his refusal to comply with this demand he was deprived of both. He died within a year (1139), leaving an infant son, Henry the Lion.

Barbarossa.—Conrad III., whose eldest son, Henry, who had already been elected

King of the Romans (i.e., declared heir-presumptive), died before his father, secured the succession, not for his second son, a minor, but for his nephew, Frederick, Duke of Suabia (Barbarossa). The princes elected him unanimously (1152) because he was, through his mother, Judith, sister of Henry the Proud, related to the Guelphs, and hope was entertained that his election would make an end to the strife between the two rival houses. In the beginning it seemed as if this would be the case. For the cousins, of nearly equal age, were fast friends. Both Saxony and Bavaria were restored to Henry the Lion, who on his part accompanied Barbarossa, whose great ambition was to be master of this fair land, on his expedition to Italy. Five times he crossed the Alps with magnificent armies, to be wasted by pestilence and the sword. In 1174 he entered Lombardy for the fifth time. Henry the Lion deserted him at a critical moment, and, thanks to this desertion, Barbarossa was beaten on the decisive field of Legnano (1176). He had to make peace, submit to the demands of the pope, and grant the Italian cities their municipal rights. But Henry the Lion was made to suffer for his treason. He was deprived of his possessions and estates (1180). Once more Barbarossa went to Italy (1184-1186), not to fight, but to celebrate the marriage of his heir-apparent, Henry, with Constance, daughter of Roger II., aunt and heiress of William II., the last *legitimate* Norman King of Naples and Sicily.

Frederick II.—The son of this marriage was Emperor Frederick II., "*the wonder of the world.*" Under him Sicily flourished greatly. More Italian than German, he visited Germany only once during thirty years, loving



crowning fortress of the whole Chateau Gailard (*Sancy Castle*). "I will take it were its walls of iron!" Philip exclaimed as he saw it rise. "I would hold it were the walls of butter," was Richard's defiant answer. But the building of the castle had exhausted his resources. Money was wanted to continue the war against Philip Augustus. Just at this moment he heard that Vidomar, Viscount of Limoges had found a treasure upon his estate. Richard demanded that the whole of it be given up to him, and on being refused, besieged Vidomar in the Castle of Chaluz. During this siege he was struck down by an arrow from the walls, 1199. His brother John was acknowledged in England and Normandy, while Anjou, Maine, and Touraine did homage to Arthur, the son of his elder brother, Geoffrey, the late Duke of Bretagne. The ambition of Philip Augustus, who protected his cause, turned the day against Arthur; the Angevins rose against the French garrisons, and John was at last (1200) owned as master of the whole dominion of his house. When Arthur tried again the chances of war, he was taken prisoner by his uncle, and finally, as men believed, murdered by his uncle's hand (1203). Philip Augustus summoned him to answer before his peers of France the charge of murdering a vassal of the French crown. John, paying no attention to this summons, was adjudged guilty of the crime and pronounced to have forfeited all his fiefs in France. Almost immediately everyone of the English possessions in France, excepting Guyenne and a part of Poitou, fell into the hands of Philip Augustus (1204).

The Magna Charta.—When John was driven from Normandy, in 1204, the Norman nobles were compelled to make their election between the island and the continent. Shut up by the sea with the people whom they had hitherto oppressed and despised, they gradually came to regard England as their country and the English as their countrymen. The two races so long hostile soon found that they had common interests and common enemies. Both were alike aggrieved by the tyranny of a bad king, who, by his refusal to acknowledge Stephen Langton as Archbishop of Canterbury, had brought England under a papal interdict, that is, had deprived both races of the consolations of religion. As John paid no regard to this measure of coercion, the pope absolved his subjects from their allegiance and handed England over to the King of France, Philip Augustus. Resisted at home, and threatened from abroad, John now made an abject submission, laying his crown at the foot of Pandulph, the papal legate. He made him-

self the vassal of the pope, receiving back from him the kingdoms of England and Ireland, which he had delivered to Innocent, and engaged that a yearly rent should be paid to Rome by the King of England and his heirs. What was the cause of this sudden submission? John had formed a great alliance against Philip Augustus. The barons of Poitou in the South, and the Count of Flanders in the North, would simultaneously attack France, while an imperial army under the Emperor Otto should join Flanders, and John himself should go to Poitou. But for the success of this vast combination, a reconciliation with the pope was indispensable, for none of his allies could fight side by side with an excommunicated king. As a political measure the success of John's submission was complete. John was enabled to land in Poitou and cross the Loire in triumph. At the same time Emperor Otto IV. invaded France from the North. For a moment the cause of Philip Augustus seemed lost. But the French communes from all sides joined the royal army, and at the great battle of Bouvines the French were victorious. When the news of the French victory at Bouvines reached Poitou, John was at once deserted by the Poitevin barons and had to beat a precipitate retreat. On his landing in England the barons held a meeting at St. Edmundsbury, and swore on the high altar to demand from him the observance of Henry's charter and the laws of the Confessor. They presented themselves in arms before the king and preferred their claim. John replied that he must be allowed some time for consideration. Finally, Stephen Langton, Archbishop of Canterbury, united with the barons in extorting from him in the meadow of Runnymede (an island in the Thames, near Windsor) the Magna Charta, the foundation of English constitutional liberty. It secured two great principles: 1st, that the king could take the money of his subjects only when it was voted to him for public objects; and 2d, that he could not punish or imprison them at his will, but could only punish them after conviction, according to law, by their countrymen (June 19, 1215).

Magna Charta was written in Latin and is still preserved in the British Museum. It has been ratified thirty-nine times by different monarchs of England. The last one who did so was Henry VI.

The reign of John closed in 1216. His son and successor, Henry III., was then only ten years of age. The ascendancy of the barons at the time of requiring the Magna Charta had so far declined subsequently that they had invited Prince Louis of France, eldest son

most to surround himself with poets, artists, and philosophers in his brilliant Sicilian court. But he became involved in quarrels with one pope after another; he was twice excommunicated; again the Italian cities raised the war-cry of Guelph and Ghibelline, and he died in the midst of the long struggle (1250). He was really the last emperor.

Frederick II., who sent his trophies to Rome to be guarded by his own subjects in his own city, was a Roman Cæsar in a sense in which no other emperor was after him.

Conrad IV. and Manfred.—His son, Conrad IV. (1250–1254), only showed himself in Italy to meet his death. Thus the empire escaped out of the hands of the Hohenstaufen, and the King of England's brother (Richard of Cornwall), and the King of Castile (Alfonso X.), each thought himself emperor. Conrad's son, the little Corradino, was not of age to dispute anything with anybody. But the kingdom of Naples remained in the grasp of the bastard Manfred, the true son of Frederick II., brilliant and witty as his father.

Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, to whom the pope gave the two Sicilies, defeated Manfred, who was betrayed by his barons, at Beneventum (1266). Manfred fell on the field. Charles of Anjou would have had the poor excommunicated corpse remain unburied; but the French themselves brought a stone each, and so reared the hero a tomb.

Corradino.—The fierce conqueror of Naples was nowise softened by his easy victory. He scattered over the country a swarm of ravenous agents, who devoured everything. Matters were carried to such an extreme that even the pope remonstrated. All Italy resounded with complaints, which echoed beyond the Alps. The whole Ghibelline party of Naples and of Tuscany implored the aid of Corradino. The heroic youth had long been detained by his mother, but as soon as he had attained the age of fifteen she found it impossible to hold him back. His friend, Frederick of Austria, joined his fortunes. They crossed the Alps with hardly four thousand men-at-arms. They were, however, reinforced by the Ghibellines of Italy. The men were ani-

mated with the best spirit, and when they encountered, behind the Tagliacozzo, the army of Charles of Anjou, they boldly crossed the river, and put to flight all who faced them. They thought the victory theirs, when Charles, with his reserve, suddenly fell upon them. They were annihilated, and Corradino was taken prisoner. He was brought to Naples, where the last male of the Hohenstaufen was beheaded, together with his inseparable friend, Frederick of Austria (October 29, 1269).

The Sicilian Vespers.—Charles's oppressive rule led to a revolt of his island subjects and to the great massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers, thus called because at Vespertime, on Easter Monday, 1282, the rising took place. All of the hated race of Frenchmen were either killed or driven out of the island. Peter of Aragon, husband of Constance of Hohenstaufen, soon after this occurrence, was called to the throne of Sicily. Charles in vain had recourse to arms, and died (1285) of vexation for his loss.

Greatness of the House of Anjou.—The house of Anjou retained the kingdom of Naples, the territory in the vicinity of Rome, and the marquisate of Ancona.

Princes of commanding talent, descended from this family, acquired the crowns of Hungary, Dalmatia, Slavonia, Croatia, and Poland. No royal French family had possessed more extensive territories since the time of Charlemagne; and if their dominions had been united under one head, or had been capable of forming a whole, it would have become even in that age the greatest power in Europe.

The founder of this house was a brother of St. Louis. His admirer, Villani, has left a terrible picture of this *dark man, who slept little*, and was to the saintly king a demon tempter. He had married Beatrice, the youngest of the four daughters of the count of Provence. The three oldest were queens (wives of Louis IX., Henry III., and Richard of Cornwall), and used to make Beatrice sit on a stool at their feet. She inflamed still more the violent and grasping disposition of her husband, for she required a throne as well as her sisters, no matter at what cost.

THE AGE OF THE MONGOL INVASIONS.

THE FIRST MONGOL INVASION OF ASIA.

Jenghis Khan.—In the thirteenth century revolutions occurred on the Amoor River in Northeastern Asia which unexpectedly and fearfully disturbed the countries between the

Chinese Sea and the Oder. A great khan, who ruled over 30,000 families on the banks of the Selenga, died before his son Temuchin had attained to man's estate. The horde was consequently divided under different heads, and only thirteen families persevered in their

allegiance. Temuchin, as he grew up, displayed a penetrating and aspiring genius. He defeated his enemies and acquired renown. About 1206 A.D. the nation held a convention on the banks of the Selenga. A sage rose up and said, "Brethren, the great God of Heaven has given the dominion of the world to our chief, Temuchin, whom he appointed Jenghis Khan" (*Universal Sovereign*). The Mongols then held up their hands and swore to follow Temuchin, the Jenghis Khan.

The Conquest of Asia.—Jenghis Khan, resolved to traverse the whole earth, and only to give peace to the conquered, broke forth from the cold and savage wilderness, invaded China, overran the peninsula of Corea, marched westward through the mountains, subdued Thibet, proceeded to Cashmere and destroyed the empire of the Chowaresmians, which reached from India to the Caspian Sea.

When Jenghis Khan died (1227), in the sixty-fourth year of his age, the conquest of Asia was continued by his sons and grandsons. Ilulaku, grandson of Jenghis Khan, in 1258 A.D. besieged and conquered Bagdad, the seat of the Abasside Caliph, and the point of union among all the Moslem of the Sunnite sect. In the 656th year of the Hegira the fifty-sixth successor of the prophet was trodden to pieces by horses amid the tumult of the sacking of his capital. Forty days the Mongols plundered the ancient seat of Arabian splendor; and their swords deprived 200,000 of its inhabitants of their lives. The Mongols then proceeded with increased forces to the Mediterranean Sea, and the Italian cities apprehended the destruction of their commerce on the Arabian Gulf. Aleppo quickly fell before their arms; they took Damascus and entered the Holy Land. But Seif-ed-din, sultan of the Mamelukes in Egypt, defeated their troops near the well of Goliah (1260), and his successor, Bebars, deprived them of their Syrian conquests. To this Prince Achmed Mostaser, last of the Abassides, fled in the garb of mourning. The sultan reverently granted him an asylum at Kahira and a competent income; and the refugee gave him in return the sanction of the prophet's name. During two centuries and a half these *titular emperors of the world* continued to live on the charity of the Mamelukes.

This was the end of the Arabic Empire and the Arabic civilization, which surpassed, at the time of its overthrow, the civilization of the West.

Municipal administration and police security and order, external comforts and luxuries, were on a higher level in Bagdad and Damascus than either in Paris or London. Science

and art were cultivated in Syria and Persia with at least as much success as in Europe.

In the former, as well as in the latter, Aristotle was studied, jurisprudence and theology were reduced to a science, and poetry flourished in youthful freshness.

It was, therefore, the greatest tragedy which our historical knowledge records when the highly cultivated Eastern world was devastated and destroyed forever by an overwhelming flood of barbarians. The savage Mongolian hordes destroyed everything before them. It was no revivifying flood, like that which enriched the Roman soil when the Germans invaded it. Jenghis Khan's hordes knew no joy beyond building huge heaps of the skulls of the slain and marching their horses over the ruins of burnt cities. Wherever they passed there was an end to all culture and to the future prosperity of nations; a dreary savage barbarism pressed upon countries which but a century before could have rivalled in civilization the very flower of Europe. Here and there, perchance, Islam could still enter the lists of military prowess with the Christian States, but her intellectual vigor was broken, and the dominion of the earth was thus forever secured to the more fortunate nations of the West.

RISE, GLORY, AND FALL OF OLD RUSSIA.

The Land and the People.—More than one thousand years ago the ancestors of the Russians (the Slavonians) occupied a small district near the sources of the Volga, Dnieper, and Western Dvina. From those humble beginnings they have gradually grown into a great nation, with a territory of nearly eight and a half millions of square miles, stretching from the Baltic to Behring Straits, and from the Arctic Ocean to the Black Sea and the Caspian. This process of expansion, which is still going on with unabated rapidity, was originally produced by purely economical causes. The natural increase of population demanded an increased production of grain, which was most easily effected by extending the area of cultivation. To the eastward they had a boundless expanse of thinly populated virgin land, consisting of two contiguous regions, differing widely from each other. The northern region was a land of forests, intersected by many rivers and containing numerous lakes and marshes, where excessive labor was remunerated by rather scanty crops. The southern region was a treeless prairie covered with a rich, black soil of marvellous fertility. But, while the Finnic tribes of the forest region were little disposed to molest the good-natured

Russian settlers, the roving Tatars, who occupied the southern prairies, proved a terrible obstacle to colonization.

Old Russia.—About the middle of the ninth century (862 A.D.) a Norman dynasty, THE RURIKS, succeeded in uniting the Russo-Slavonians. Drawn together by the firm grasp of a succession of able alien rulers, and since 988 compactly united by the kindly influence of the Eastern Church, they rapidly expanded. Kief, "*fit mother of Russian cities*," became the centre of the nascent monarchy, which, about 1000 A.D., stretched from the Gulf of Finland to the Carpathians, and from the confines of Poland and Lithuania to close upon the confluence of the Oka and the Volga.

But after 1054 every descendant of Rurik claimed a separate principality, and considered himself independent of all the other princes except the eldest, to whom a mostly nominal obedience was shown (*the appanage system*). The eldest prince of the race of Rurik resided originally at Kief, had the title of Grand Prince, and was the presiding officer among the Russian princes. Kief maintained long its high position. But at length its power began to decline, and after being sacked, first by Russian (1169) and then by Tatar hands (1240), it at last passed into the power of the Lithuanian princes. Next in order was the principality of SOUZDAL. For a long time (1169-1300) the Grand-Principship remained associated with its capital, the city of Vladimir, as it had formerly been with the city of Kief. Then (since 1328) Moscow became the centre of the Russias. The results of this *appanage system* were the breaking up of the unity of the monarchy, and continual civil wars, which naturally invited the attacks of their warlike neighbors.

During the tenth, and the first half of the eleventh century the land groaned under the blows inflicted by the *Petchenegians*. They were succeeded by the *Polortsi*, and before those invaders had long been rendered harmless the civilization of the country seemed for a time to be on the point of disappearing under the terrible pressure of the Mongols.

The Mongol Invasions.—In 1224 the chieftains of the Polovtsi sent messengers to MISTISLAV, the Prince of Galicia, to inform him that their country had been invaded by the Mongols. "*To-day*," they said, "*they have seized our country, and to-morrow they will seize yours if you do not help us.*" Mistislav, perceiving the force of the argument about his own turn coming next, thought it wise to assist his old enemies. On the Kalka, a small river falling into the sea of Azov, the Russian army met the invaders, but was completely routed. The vic-

tors, however, after advancing as far as the Dnieper, suddenly wheeled round and disappeared. Thirteen years afterward (1237) they returned under Batu, grandson of Jenghis Khan. The Russian princes made hardly any attempt to combine against the common enemy. Nearly all the principal towns were laid in ashes, and the inhabitants were killed or carried off as slaves. When the Russian princes arrived as fugitives in Poland and Hungary, Europe was terror-stricken. Pope Gregory IX. summoned Christendom to arms. Louis IX. prepared for a crusade. Frederick II., as emperor, wrote to the sovereigns of the West: "This is the moment to open the eyes of body and soul, now that the brave princes on whom we reckoned are dead or in slavery." The Mongols invaded Hungary, gave battle to the Poles near Liegnitz (Wahlstatt), in Silesia (1241), had their progress a long while arrested by the courageous defence of Olmütz, in Moravia, and stopped finally, learning that a large army, commanded by the King of Bohemia and the dukes of Austria and Carinthia, was approaching. The news of the death of OCTAI, second emperor of all the Mongols, in China, recalled Batu from the West. On his return to the Volga, Batu built on one of the arms of the Lower Volga a city called SARAÏ (*the Castle*), which became the capital of a powerful Mongol empire, the *Golden Horde* extending from the Ural and Caspian to the mouth of the Danube. United and powerful under the terrible Batu, who died in 1255, it fell to pieces under his successors; but in the fourteenth century the Khan Uzbek reunited it anew, and gave the horde a second period of prosperity. The Mongols, who were pagans when they entered Russia, embraced, about 1272, the faith of Islam, and became its most formidable apostles.

The Black Death.—In the wake of the Mongolian invasions came the most terrible plague the world has ever witnessed, which swept over Asia, Northern Africa, and Europe. It was first seen in Western Europe, in Provence, on All Saints' Day, 1347. In sixteen months it carried off two-thirds of the inhabitants. The same wholesale destruction befell Languedoc. At Narbonne 30,000 persons perished.

It reached the North of France in August, 1348. In Paris it carried off 800 persons daily. In Strasburg 16,000 perished. The prologue to Boccaccio's "Decameron" is the principal historic evidence we possess of its ravages in Italy. He asserts that at Florence alone 100,000 perished. After devastating Europe from the shores of the Mediterranean to the Baltic it swooped, at the close of 1348,

upon Britain. Of the 4,000,000 who then formed the population of England, more than one-half were swept away in its repeated visitations.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE DURING THE ERA OF THE FIRST MONGOLIAN INVASION.

Edward I. and Wales.—Edward I. (1272–1307) was the first *national* king with *purely national* aims. He undertook to unite the whole island under his sceptre. In Wales, the conquest of which had been so often attempted and so often failed, there lived at this time Prince Llewellyn, whose personal beauty, cunning, and high spirit fitted him to be a brilliant representative of the old British nationality. The bards, reviving the old prophecies, promised him the ancient crown of Brutus, but when he ventured out of the mountains he was overpowered and fell, on the Wye, in a hand-to-hand conflict. The English crown was not to fall to Llewellyn's lot, but Edward transferred the title of Prince of Wales to his own son. The great cross of the Welsh, the crown of Arthur, fell into his hands; he no longer tolerated the bards; their age passed away with the Crusades.

Edward I. and Scotland.—From Wales Edward turned his arms against Scotland. There Columban had in former days (about 600 A.D.) anointed as king a Scottish prince, who was also of Celtic descent. How the German element, nevertheless, got the upper hand, not merely in the greatest part of the country, but also in the ruling family, is the great problem of early Scottish history. A thoroughly Germanic monarchy had arisen which ruled over an aggregate of four races: the English (between *Forth* and *Tweed*), the Welsh (between *Solway* and *Clyde*), the Picts (north of the *Forth* and *Clyde*), and the Irish tribe of the Scots (in Southwestern Argyle). After it had once given a home to English and Saxons, who fled before the Normans, it thought its honor concerned in repelling all English influences. A disputed succession gave Edward I. an opportunity of reviving the claims of his predecessors to the overlordship of Scotland.

After the death of Alexander III. the Scottish crown passed to his grand-daughter, Margaret, the Maid of Norway, to whom Edward had betrothed his son; but she died on the voyage from Norway (1290), and thirteen claimants for the crown appeared. The five principal ones were John Baliol, The Red Comyn, The Bruce, John Hastings, and Floris V. The Scottish States, being unable to decide between them, made Edward I. an umpire. He decided for John Baliol, as the descendant of

the eldest grand-daughter of David of Huntingdon (1292), stipulating, however, that the suzerainty should rest with himself.

In 1293 hostilities between French and English mariners resulted in a naval battle, in which 15,000 Normans were said to have perished. Philip IV., King of France, summoned Edward to appear before him in Paris to answer, as Duke of Guienne, for the wrong said to have been perpetrated by Edward's subjects on the subjects of his suzerain. At the same time the French king entered into a treaty with the King of Scotland, that so Edward, if not submissive to the call made upon him, might have a war upon his hands in both countries. When, therefore, Edward called upon Baliol to aid him against France, the latter renounced his allegiance, and declared war.

The English Conquest of Scotland.—When Edward heard of Baliol's rebellion, he marched at once to Scotland. Baliol was conquered at Dunbar (1297) and made a prisoner. The Scottish strongholds fell into the hands of the English. The country appeared to be subjugated, but the Scots were ill-treated by the English. A revolt against English rule broke out in a most formidable manner. William Wallace came down from the hill country, at the head of the fugitives and exiles, a robber-patriot of gigantic bodily strength and innate talent for war. His successes soon increased his band to the size of an army. He beat the English in the pitched battle of Stirling (1297) and then swept over the borders into the English territory. A truce with France enabled Edward in 1298 to invade Scotland in person. He marched into the country at the head of the largest army he had ever gathered, and in the battle of Falkirk inflicted a terrible defeat on the Scottish forces. Wallace escaped from the field, but only to fall through treachery into English hands and be condemned to death as a traitor. Edward now united Scotland with England and directed that Scottish representatives should take part in the English parliament. In the midst of this struggle with Scotland the English parliament had become what it has ever since been. In 1295 the first complete parliament met. Finding that if he was to expect money from parliament, for his wars, he must promise never to take money without the consent of parliament, Edward I. in 1297 swore to articles known as the *Confirmation of the Charters* in which he promised to levy no more money without a grant from parliament. Nevertheless, Scotland would have nothing to do with Edward's government, however good it might be. After the execution of Wallace the struggle for Scottish independence was

taken up by Robert Bruce, grandson of the Bruce who had claimed the crown. His plan to gain the crown was disclosed by John Comyn (known as the *Red Comyn*) nephew of Baliol. This Comyn young Bruce stabbed in a church at Dumfries. He was then crowned king at Scone (1306) and summoned the Scots to his standard. The English king sent his son Edward with the vanguard, but the king himself, before he could reach Scotland, died (1307).

Edward II.—(1307–1327).—Notwithstanding he had promised his dying father that he would push on the war against the Scots, Edward II. abandoned the enterprise and turned back into England. Under him the old ambition of the barons to take a preponderant part in the government reappeared once more with the greatest violence. The occasion was afforded by the weakness of the sovereign, who allowed his favorite, the Gascon Gaveston, a disastrous influence on affairs. Discontented with this, the king's nearest cousin, Thomas of Lancaster, placed himself at the head of the great nobles, and in the fourth year of his government Edward was obliged to accept all the regulations made by a committee of the nobles called the *Ordainers* (1310).

Without advice of the nobles he was forbidden either to begin a war or to fill up high offices of state or even to leave the country. Gaveston had to pay for his short possession of influence by death without mercy (1312).

It was long before the king found men who had the courage to defend the lawful authority of the crown. At last the two Hugh Despencers undertook it. Under their leadership, the barons were defeated, and Thomas of Lancaster in his turn paid for his enterprises with his life (1322). The regulations of the *Ordainers* were now revoked, and even the form, under cover of which they had been ratified, was declared invalid for all times. It was declared that all matters be established in parliament by the *King* with the consent not only of the barons, but also of *the universality of the realm*.

Independence of Scotland.—Bruce, taking advantage of Edward's troubles, aroused the Scots to drive the English from their land. But for several years his cause seemed desperate, Bruce and his companions passing their lives as outlaws among the rocky fastnesses of the country. But gradually by stratagem, surprise, and desperate fighting, the English soldiers were crowded out of city after city, and fortress after fortress until almost all Scotland was in the hands of Bruce, who was now formally accepted by the people as their true and lawful sovereign. When, finally, Stirling the last place of importance still held by English

troops, was besieged, Edward bestirred himself (1314). He set out for Scotland with an army of nearly one hundred thousand men. A great battle took place at Bannockburn near Stirling, where Bruce, with a greatly inferior force of foot-soldiers, totally defeated the English. The independence of Scotland really dates from the victory of Bannockburn, but the English were too proud to acknowledge it until fourteen years more of war. Finally in 1328, Edward III. gave up all claim to Scotland, which now, with Robert Bruce as its king, took its place among the nations of Europe.

Catastrophe of Edward II.—Guienne and Poitou were the only parts of France still in possession of the English. During the greater part of the reign of Edward II. there were no differences between France and England. But in 1324 Edward was summoned in peremptory terms to do homage to Charles IV. for his French possessions. To evade this demand the king first sent ambassadors, then his queen, and, lastly, he resigned the two provinces into the hand of his son. But his ease and self-indulgence were not secured by these means. His queen, Isabella, who had joined his enemies, returned in 1325 from France with Edward, Prince of Wales, and at the head of exiles and foreign soldiers. The barons joined her. The Despencers were taken and executed. The king was driven to resign the crown. He was carried from one castle to another and finally was secretly murdered at Berkeley Castle, by Roger Mortimer, in whose custody he had been placed (1327).

The French Succession in 1327.—None of the three sons of Philip IV. left a male heir. When the last one, Charles IV., died in 1327, the question arose whether the crown could descend to females, each of the sons having left daughters. It was decided that, according to the old Salic law of the Franks, the kingdom could not "*fall to the distaff*." During the short reign of Philip's sons, their uncle, Charles, Count of Valois, secured almost royal power, and his son obtained in 1328 the crown, which thus went to the Valois branch of the Capets. This new king, Philip VI., summoned Edward III. to appear in the French court and do homage for the duchy of Guienne. Edward had more than one reason for looking with distaste on this summons. His mother, Isabella, was daughter of Philip IV., of France. The Salic law, which in France precluded his mother from the throne on account of her sex, did not, he maintained preclude himself, as her male offspring. It was only by repudiating this doctrine, and extending the disability, not only to females in

the direct line, but to their descendants, that Philip of Valois had become king. Edward, however, deemed it prudent for the present to comply with the demand of Philip; but first declared to his council, that what he was about to do, would be done under constraint, and should not deter him from asserting his right to the crown of France on a future day. Besides there were other causes of strife. The French coveted Flanders and the English would not allow this province, the best customer for their wool, to pass under French control. Finally, France and Scotland were always leagued, either secretly or openly, against England. It was in their power to create diversions in favor of each other, and so to weaken the common enemy. But these double tactics only seemed to give a double intensity to the antagonism of the English. The enemies of England, to whom Scotland was not a place of safety, found a ready asylum in France. In 1337 it was no secret that Philip had purposed sending considerable succors to the party of David Bruce in Scotland. It is at this juncture that Edward decides on invading France.

The First English Invasion of France.

—In 1337 Edward entered France, and then, for the first time, publicly set up his claim to be King of France, quartering the lilies on his shield; and he was accepted by the Flemish as their suzerain. The first battle was on the sea near Sluys (1340), where Edward won a victory which gave him the command of the English channel. In 1341, during a disputed succession in Brittany, the greater part of the Bretons also hailed Edward as their suzerain.

In 1344 the peers, each in his own name, called on the king to cross the sea, and not let himself be hindered by anyone from appealing to the judgment of God by battle; they promising to follow him in person with their squires and horsemen.

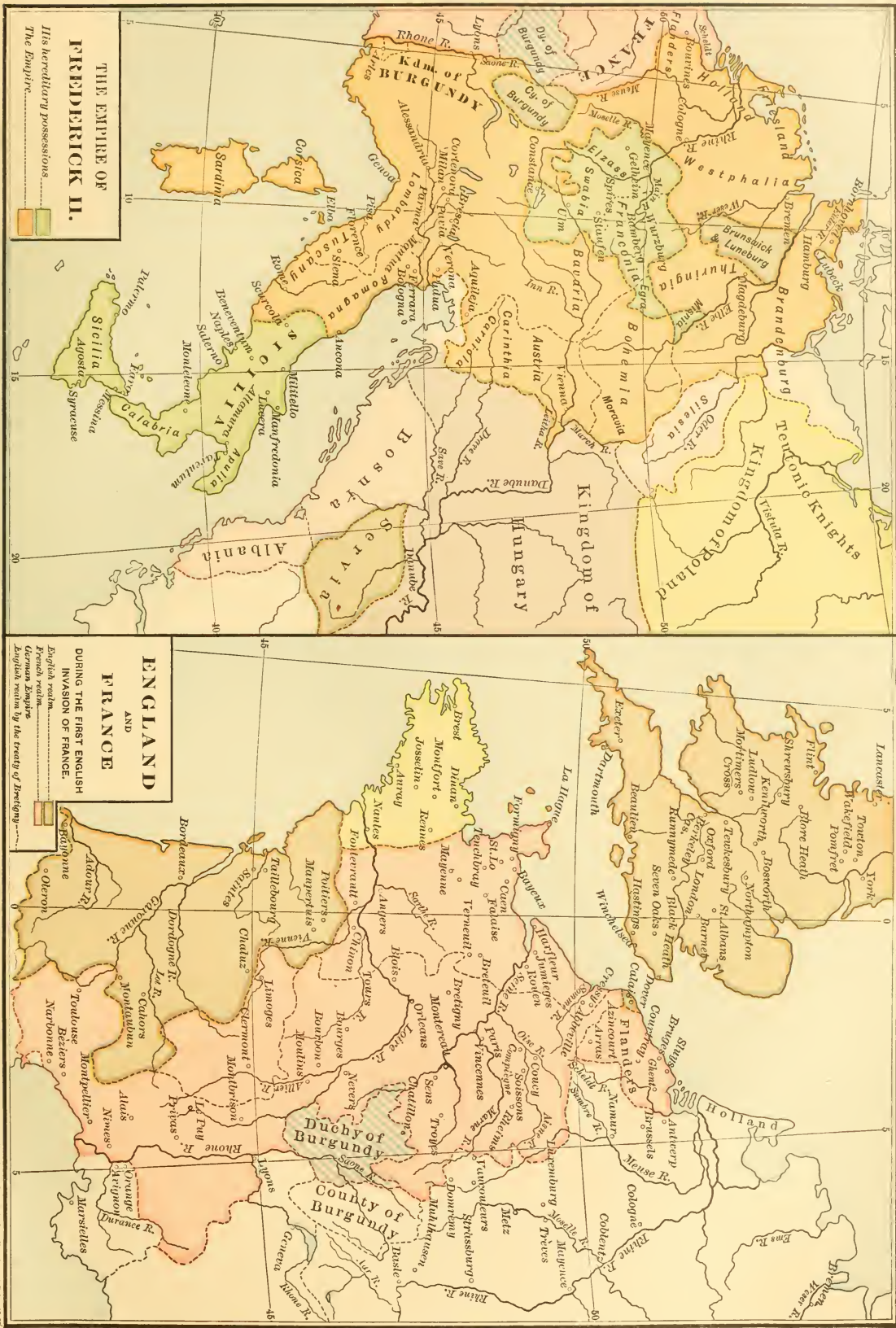
So that splendid army made its appearance in France (1346), in which the weapons of the yeomen vied with those of the knights, and which, thanks to the former, won the victory of Crecy (August 26, 1346). While the king made conquests over the French, his heroic queen repelled the Scotch (at Neville's Cross, October 17, 1346). In these wars, the now united nation, which put forth all its strength, came for the first time to the feeling of its power, to a position of its own in the world, and to the consciousness of it. The King of Scotland at that time, and the King of France some years later (King John, made prisoner in the battle of Poitiers in 1356), became prisoners in England. A period followed in which England seemed to have obtained the suprem-

acy of Western Europe. The Scots purchased their king's freedom by a truce which bound them to long and heavy payments, for which hostages were given as a security. By the treaty of Brétigny (May, 1360), Guienne, Gascony, Poitou, and such important towns as Rochelle and Calais were surrendered to Edward, who was to be independent sovereign of Aquitaine and Ponthieu. The Prince of Wales (*The Black Prince*), who took up his residence at Bordeaux, mixed in the Spanish quarrels with the view of uniting Biscay to his Aquitanian realm. As the result of these circumstances and of the well-calculated encouragement of Edward III., we find that English commerce prospered immensely, and, in emulous alliance with that of Flanders, began to form another great centre for the general commerce of the world.

England Loses Southern France.—

England did not long maintain herself in the dominant position she occupied in 1360; the plan of extending her rule into Spain proved ruinous for the Black Prince. Not merely was his protégé (Peter the Cruel of Castile) overpowered by the French *free companies* under Bertrand du Guesclin, but a Castilian war fleet succeeded in destroying the English one in sight of the harbor of La Rochelle (1372). On this their natural inclination toward the King of France awoke in the nobles and towns of Southern France. Without great battles, merely by the revolt of vassals tired of his rule, Edward III. again lost nearly all the territories conquered with such great glory (see Plate XXXVI.). Then a gloom settled down around the aged conqueror. He saw his eldest son, who, though obliged to quit France, in England enjoyed the fullest confidence and had every prospect of a great future, sicken and die (1376). And he too experienced what befalls so many others, that misfortune abroad raised him up opponents at home. In the increasing weakness of old age he could not maintain the independence of the royal power, with the re-establishment of which he had begun his reign. He was still able to effect this much, that the succession to the kingdom came to the son of the Black Prince.

Richard II.—Only ten years old at his grandfather's death, England was ruled by the boy-king's uncles, and chiefly by John of Gaunt. The country felt the weakness of the government in a general disorder. Still the war with France called for money; and the parliament was driven to raise this money by a tax, not as of old on lands, but on every man and woman personally "by head" (*poll*), which was hence called a poll-tax. This was levied from



people who had till now been free from taxation, and who were just awaking to the injustice of their state as *serf* or bondsman, bound to do service in labor on their lord's lands. A preacher, named John Ball, fanned the discontent into a temper of rebellion; and in 1381 the commons rose in the Peasant Revolt. A large body of them, with Wat the Tyler at their head, at last reached London. Young Richard was only sixteen, but he rode boldly out to meet them. He managed them with so much tact and gave them such fair promises that they dispersed. Riots, however, and disturbances spread through the country. The peasants were attacked and slaughtered in thousands. The king was not allowed to fulfil his promises even if he had wished to do so.

Under the pretext that he had become the slave of unworthy favorites, he was (1386) deprived of almost all his authority by his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, and a commission of regency. He was not, however, disposed to bear this yoke forever. He first freed himself from the war with France by a truce for twenty-five years (1396), followed by his marriage with Isabella, daughter of Charles V. At home, too, he gained himself friends. When all was prepared he struck a sudden blow (July, 1397), which no one would have expected from him. He removed his leading opponents (above all, his uncle Gloucester, and Arundel, Archbishop of Canterbury)—banished them or threw them into prison. Then he succeeded in getting together a parliament in which his partisans had the upper hand, which, by making him a very considerable grant for his life-time, freed him from the necessity of summoning it anew. Richard's success was only momentary. His absolute rule was not free from arbitrary acts. Among the great nobles each trembled for his own safety; the clergy were impatient of being deprived of their primate. It needed only the return of an exile, the young Henry of Lancaster, whom the king would not allow to take possession of his inheritance by deputy, and who broke his ban to do himself right. He landed in 1399, with a few men-at-arms and with Archbishop Arundel, and being joined by the great family of the Percies he obliged Richard to resign the crown.

He was deposed by parliament for misgovernment. Not long after he was murdered at Pomfret Castle, February 7, 1400. Lancaster was made king under the name of Henry IV. (1399-1413).

Thus parliament raised a prince to the throne who had openly opposed the legal king in the field, and was not even the next in succession; for there were still the descendants of an elder brother left, who, according to

English usage, had a prior right. The parliament held itself competent to settle, on its own authority, even the succession to the crown. It enacted that it should belong to the king's eldest son, and after him to his male issue. The proposal formally to exclude succession in the female line did not pass, but for a long while to come the actual practice had that effect.

GERMANY AND ITALY DURING THE ERA OF THE FIRST MONGOLIAN INVASION.

The Beginnings of the Habsburgs.—

After the fall of the Hohenstaufen, the empire had for nearly twenty years no recognized head. Often, during these dark days, did the common people think of Barbarossa, and sigh for the time when he should awake from his long sleep and bring back quiet and safety. At last even the selfish barons became convinced that Germany could not do without a government. The leading princes (the three Archbishops of Mayence, Cologne, and Treves) conferred, in 1273, the crown on Rudolf of Habsburg. Ottocar, King of Bohemia, refused to do homage to him. He was put under the ban of the empire, and his fiefs proclaimed forfeited. Conquered in battle (Marchfield, 1278), he was forced to yield to the conqueror *Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola*. Rudolf bestowed them, in 1282, in fief on his two sons, Albert and Rudolf, and on his brother-in-law, Meinhard of Tyrol (Carinthia). Thus was founded the future greatness of the house of Habsburg. Albert alone survived his father, and in conjunction with his nephew John inherited all the Habsburg possessions. Rudolf had in vain endeavored to procure the German crown for his son, who was, however, elected on the deposition of Adolf of Nassau, in 1298, and assumed the title of Albert I. He was assassinated in 1308 by his nephew John.

The House of Luxemburg.—Through the influence of the Archbishop of Treves, the princes elected as *King of the Romans* his brother Henry, Count of Luxemburg. This is Emperor Henry VII., celebrated by the contemporary Italian poet, Dante. Although a prince of small possessions, he strove to live up to his title. The marriage of his son John with Ottocar's granddaughter Elizabeth, heiress of Bohemia, founded the greatness of the house of Luxemburg.

The aim of Henry was to restore the greatness of the Holy Roman Empire. Crossing from his Burgundian dominions with a scanty following of knights, and descending from Mont. Cenis upon Turin he found his pre-

rogative higher in men's belief after sixty years of neglect than it had stood under the last Hohenstaufen. The cities of Lombardy opened their gates; Milan decreed a vast subsidy. Guelph and Ghibelline exiles alike were restored, and imperial vicars appointed everywhere. There was no pope in Rome to thwart the imperial plans; for, after the short pontificate of Benedict XI., a French prelate, the Archbishop of Bordeaux was made pope under the name of Clement V. He was crowned at Lyons in 1305, and in 1309 had established himself at Avignon, a possession of the Holy See on the borders of France. (Seven successors of Clement V. resided at Avignon. In 1376 the pope returned to Rome.) This Clement V., dreading the restless ambition of the French king, supported Henry in everything, who therefore had the interdict of the church as well as the ban of the empire at his command.

But the illusion of success vanished as soon as men began to be again governed by their ordinary passions and interests, and not by an imaginative reverence for the glories of the past. Tumults and revolts broke out in Lombardy; at Rome the King of Naples held St. Peter's, and the coronation must take place in the Church of the Lateran (1312). The hostility of the Guelphic league, headed by the Florentines, obliged Henry to depart from his impartial policy and to purchase the aid of the Ghibelline chiefs by granting them the government of cities. With few troops, and encompassed by enemies, the heroic emperor sustained an unequal struggle for a year longer, till, in 1313, he sunk beneath the fevers of the deadly Tuscan summer.

Louis the Bavarian.—The empire on Henry VII.'s death, in 1313, was bestowed on Louis the Bavarian (1314-1347). Albert I.'s son Frederick was elected as a rival to Louis the Bavarian, but was overthrown at the battle of *Ampfung*, near Mühldorf, in 1322; and from this period till the election of Albert II., in 1438, the Habsburg princes remained excluded from the German throne, and were chiefly occupied with the affairs of their Austrian dominions. Louis the Bavarian was not able to leave the empire to his son. The violent means adopted by him to increase his domestic power led (1346), a year before his death, to the election of Charles, son of that John of Bohemia who fell, in 1346, at Crécy.

Emperor Charles IV.—The second emperor of the house of Luxemburg, Charles IV. (1347-1378), had nothing knightly in his character, but was wise in statecraft and shrewd in calculation. Under his direction was drawn up (1356) the famous *Golden Bull*, so called

from the golden seal (with the legend, *Roma caput mundi regit orbis frena rotundi*) affixed to it. This famous instrument, which became the corner-stone of the German constitution, confessed and legalized the independence of the electors and the powerlessness of the crown. Frankford was fixed as the place of election. The Archbishop of Mayence, Archchancellor of Germany, was convener of the electoral college; the six other electors were: the Archbishop of Cologne, Archchancellor of Italy; the Archbishop of Treves, Archchancellor of the kingdom of Arles; the King of Bohemia, Archseneschal; the Count Palatine, Archsteward; the Duke of Saxony, Archmarshal; the Margrave of Brandenburg, Archchamberlain. The electoral vote went with the land. In 1373 Emperor Charles IV. bought, for about \$150,000 (only half of it ever paid), from Otto, third son of Louis the Bavarian, the electorate and mark of Brandenburg.

To Germany he was indirectly a benefactor by the foundation (1348) of a university, after the pattern of that in Paris, at Prague. It was the first university in Germany—the mother of all her schools.

On his death-bed he divided his lands among his three sons. Wenceslaus, the eldest, who had already been elected to the German throne, received the cradle of the race, *Luxemburg*, with *Bohemia* and *Silesia*; Sigismund, *Brandenburg*; John, *Lusatia*.

Emperor Sigismund.—Wenzel was deposed as emperor in 1400. He died childless (1419), as king of Bohemia. Rupert, the Count Palatine, wore the imperial crown from 1400 to 1410, when Sigismund was elected emperor, who, in right of his wife, Maria, daughter of Louis the Great, was king of Hungary. Since his brother Wenceslaus' death, in 1419, he had united under his sceptre Bohemia and Hungary. He had, however, before this, parted with his original domain; for at Constance, in 1415, Sigismund had invested Frederick of Hohenzollern burggrave of Nuremberg, with the mark of Brandenburg, the electoral vote, and the office of archchamberlain, as a reward for the important services he had done him and the empire. In reality he had mortgaged the mark for a \$1,000,000, which he found very inconvenient to pay back. His father had actually paid for it \$75,000. Sigismund sold it, forty-two years later, for \$1,000,000. The new elector vigorously entered his possession, battering down with gunpowder "the castle walls, fourteen feet thick," of the robber-knights, and restored order and quiet. His descendants to-day occupy the Prussian throne.

EASTERN EUROPE UNTIL 1356.

The Original Races of the Balkan Peninsula.—When the Romans conquered the Balkan Peninsula they found there three great races—the Greek, the Illyrian, and the Thracian. Those three races are all there still. The Greeks never spread over the Balkan Peninsula and peopled it, but were rather attracted to the points which offered the greatest facilities for commerce. During the Roman dominion they gradually took the Roman name, but they kept their own language, literature, and civilization. The common term for a Greek in Turkey is still *Roum*, i.e., Roman. The ancient Illyrians are represented by the modern Albanians, and the Thracians by the modern Romanians—also called Wallachians, or Conciari, and they are of the same race as their namesakes in Wallachia and Moldavia. To those three old races was added, during the period of the great migrations, a fourth, the Slavonians. They came into the Balkan Peninsula in all manner of characters—as captives, as mercenaries, as allies, and at last as conquerors. From the seventh century A.D., we must count the Slavonic people and the Slavonic language as one great element, in number, perhaps, the greatest element, on the Balkan Peninsula. The older Slavonic immigrants are represented by the Bulgarians, the later Slavonic immigration by the Servians.

The Bulgarians.—One of the oldest Slavonic migrations settled, about 450 A.D., in depopulated Mœsia, the tract between the Danube and the Balkan. They called themselves Slovieni, and their country Slovenia. In 679 they were conquered by the small but warlike Finnic tribe of the Bulgarians. The conquerors, however, were soon assimilated by their Slavonic subjects, who surpassed them far in numbers. They gradually adopted the Slavonic speech, and lost all traces of their non-Slavonic origin. Though often at war with the Byzantine Empire, the Bulgarians profited by its neighborhood so far as to imbibe a considerable amount of civilization. In the ninth century they fought covered with steel armor; their discipline astonished the veterans of the empire, and they possessed all the military engines then known. They were converted to Christianity about 860 by Cyrillus and Methodius, the celebrated Slavonian apostles, who introduced letters among them. They invented an alphabet principally formed from the Greek capitals, and gave to each letter the name of a word beginning with it. With these characters, usually termed *Cyrillian*, was made a Slavonic version of the Scriptures and a na-

tional liturgy. Thus Slavonian literature first flourished among the Bulgarians. The great Bulgarian Tsar Simeon (893-927) was not only a great warrior who made himself formidable to the Byzantines, but he bestowed, also, his patronage on the early efforts of native literature. After his death decay began, and in 1019 the Bulgarians were forced to acknowledge the supremacy of Byzantium. More than a century and a half later (1218) two brothers, Peter and Asen, founded the *second Bulgarian kingdom*, which, under Tsar Joannes Asen II., reached from the Danube to the Ægean. About 1250 it lost the Macedonian provinces, but was able to maintain its independence against Byzantium. Plate XXXVI. shows the extent of the Bulgarian kingdom about the middle of the fourteenth century.

The Servians.—In the beginning of the seventh century A.D., the northern provinces of the Byzantine Empire were overrun by the Tatar tribe of the Avars. To root out this swarm and repeople the land, the Emperor Heraclius invited into his dominions certain Slavonic tribes, who, having left their original seats, were hovering on the north bank of the Danube. The land whence these tribes came lay on the northern slope of the Carpathians. Its name was Servia, or Serbia; *Serb* (nation) being the domestic appellation by which the Slavonians originally designated themselves. They settled west of the Bulgarians, from the Danube to the Adriatic. They were a warlike tribe, who crossed the Danube as an organized community commanded by princes. They acknowledged sometimes the Byzantine emperor, sometimes the Bulgarian tsar, but they were never governed except by their own chiefs. In the middle of the ninth century they had become converts to the Eastern Church. The real history of Servia, which begins in the middle of the twelfth century, consists of three periods—*growth, glory, and fall*, each having its representative man.

The first of these is STEPHEN NEMANIA, who (1162) welded several detached and vassal governments into an independent monarchy.

The second is Tsar Stephen Dushan, who (1340) raised the monarchy into an *empire*, and aimed to defend the whole peninsula against the Turks.

The Empire of Constantinople, consisting of three detached pieces, Peloponnesus, Chalcidice, and Roumelia (see Plate XXXVI.), was barely able to hold its own. The Venetians (their possessions are colored green) cared only for their commercial interests. Bulgaria was weakened by internal factions. Under these circumstances Stephen Dushan thought it his



duty to unite the whole of the Balkan Peninsula against the Turks, by absorbing the weaker powers. He assumed the title of *Christ-loving Tsar of all Serbs and Greeks*, and prepared to take Constantinople. But he died of fever on the march to Constantinople (1355). His death sealed the fate of the Balkan Peninsula.

THE RISE OF THE OSMANLI EMPIRE.

Origin of the Turks.—The original home of the Turks was on the slope of the Altai Mountains, from whence they descended into the steppes to the east of Lake Aral. After them this tract was called Turkestan, or Turan. About 1000 A.D., Seljuk led several tribes out of Turkestan into Bokhara. They were called, after him, Seljukian Turks, or Seljuks. They embraced the Islam, and played an important part in the continual feuds between the Mohammedan empires in Asia. After Seljuk's death, his third son, Arslan, crossed the Oxus and settled in Chorassan, from whence he extended his power in all directions (1039). Togrul Beg, grandson of Seljuk, became the founder of a large empire, which, under his grandson, Malek-shah, extended from the Chinese frontier to the Ægæan Sea. It lasted till 1092, when it was split into five smaller states, of which the Sultanate of Iconium, in Asia Minor, was the most important.

As ruling over a land conquered from the Roman Empire, they called themselves the Sultans of Roum (*Rome*). Their attacks on the Eastern empire caused the Christian nations of the West to come to the help of their brethren in the East. (See Crusades.) The power of Roum, weakened in the eleventh century by the Crusaders, was broken in the thirteenth century by the Mongols.

Beginnings of the Osmanli Empire.—In one of the many battles between Turks and Mongols, the latter were conquered by the help of a wandering Turkish tribe, who, under their leader, Ertoghrul, were seeking new settlements. They were rewarded with a grant of the rich plains of Saguta, along the left bank of the river Sakaria. (See Plate XLIV.) This district grew step by step into the Osmanli empire, thus called after Osman, the son of Ertoghrul, who, in 1299, threw off his allegiance to the Sultan of Iconium. To the territories which Osman had won by arms a permanent organization was given under his son and successor, Orchan (1326–1360).

Thus the house of Osman arose on the ruins of the house of Seljuk; Broussa, at the foot of the Mysian Olympus, became its first capital.

In the time of Orchan almost the whole of Asia Minor was already subjected to the Osmanli. A very small number of towns (*Chalcedon, Phokaia, Philadelphia*) remained under the Empire of Constantinople, which accelerated its downfall by internal divisions, during which Thrace and Macedonia were nearly reduced to a desert and became the prey of Servians and Turks whose assistance was sought by both parties. During these disturbances the Turks took Adrianople, which in magnitude was the third city in the Greek Empire and the key to Bulgaria and Servia.

The Osmanli in Europe.—The conqueror Amurath I. made this his residence.

This Amurath (1359–1380) formed a regular corps of 12,000 captive Christian youths, called Janissaries (*Yeni Tscheri, i.e., New Troops*), whose arms obtained, during 200 years, an almost uninterrupted succession of victories. He designed and trained them to the knowledge and love of no other employment but arms, and taught them to devote their whole life to his interests and to warfare. He bestowed great rewards on them, distributed them in barracks, and forbade them to marry. No institution similar to this existed among the Europeans, and the irresistible progress of the Turks was the natural consequence of it. The consequence of the taking of Adrianople by the Osmanli was the formation of a league between the rulers of Hungary, Servia, and Bulgaria to drive the invaders out of Europe; and their united forces marched toward Adrianople, until they crossed the river Maritsa at a point not more than two days' journey from that city. Neglecting all military precautions, they were attacked in the night and fled in panic rout (1363). From this day the Turks took town after town from the Servians, until the capture of the strong city of Nissa (1376) forced the Servian sovereign to beg for peace, which was only granted to him on the condition of supplying a tribute of a thousand pounds of silver and a thousand horse-soldiers every year. But Servia could not forget the proud position which she had held before the Osmanli had come into Europe. She formed a formidable league of the whole of Eastern Europe (except Russia, which still was in the power of the Mongols). The Bulgarians and Servians commenced the war by destroying a Turkish army of 20,000 men. But after this vigorous blow the Christians relaxed in their exertions, while Amurath sent an army across the Balkan which quickly conquered Bulgaria (1389). The Servian Tsar Lazar, alarmed at the destruction of his confederate, now prepared for a resolute struggle. Amurath marched westward from Bulgaria to meet him.

On the plain of Kossova the fate of Servia was decided on June 15 (St. Vitus' day), 1389. While the battle was still undecided, a Servian nobleman, Milosh Kabilovitsh, rode to the Ottoman centre pretending to be a deserter. Led before the emir, he knelt as if in homage before him, and then stabbed Amurath, who, dying, gave orders for the last charge which decided the victory in his favor. Tsar Lazar was brought captive in his presence, and Amurath died in the act of pronouncing the death-doom of his foe.

Sultan Bajazet (1389-1402).—His reign commenced in the camp, and he followed up the war against the Servians with vigor and success that showed him to be the heir of his father's valor as well as of his throne. They only obtained a seasonable relief from the pressure of his arms by the sudden attack which the Prince of Caramania made, in 1392, upon the possessions of the Osmanli in Asia. Caramania was conquered, and all the south of Asia Minor acknowledged Bajazet as sovereign.

Bajazet was startled from his festivals in honor of the conquest of Asia Minor by a crusade of the Christian chivalry of the West (1396).

Sigismund, the King of Hungary, felt deeply, after the day of Kossova, the imminence of the peril to which his own country was exposed; and he succeeded in moving the sympathies of other members of the Latin Church into active enterprise in his behalf. Pope Boniface IX., in the year 1394, proclaimed a crusade against the Osmanli. About 12,000 men, led by John the Fearless, son of the Duke of Burgundy, marched to Hungary, where they were joined by Sigismund, who had collected the full strength of his own kingdom. The first Turkish town attacked by the confederates was Widdin, which surrendered immediately. After taking a few more unimportant towns they laid siege to the important city of Nicopolis, which was stubbornly defended by Yoglan Bey. On September 24, 1396, the Christians were unexpectedly attacked by Bajazet. After a fierce battle the overthrow of the Christian army was complete. King Sigismund and a few leaders escaped with difficulty from the field; but nearly all the best and bravest of the gallant army which had marched on that crusade lay stark on the bloody field of Nicopolis, or were helplessly waiting for the doom which it might please the triumphant sultan to pass upon his captive foes. Among the latter was a youth of Munich, named Schildberger, who escaped death in the conflict and in the massacre that followed. He lived to witness and to share the captivity of

his first captors; and after thirty-four years of slavery returned to his home and wrote there a memoir of his own life, which is the most interesting and most trustworthy narrative that we possess of the campaign of Nicopolis and of many of the subsequent scenes of Turkish history.

Nothing could surpass the arrogant confidence in the strength of his arms with which Bajazet was inspired by this victory over the chosen warriors of the Christian nations. It was his common boast that he would conquer Italy, and that his horse should eat his oats on the high altar of St. Peter's. His generals overran and devastated Styria and the south of Hungary, and the sultan himself led the Turkish armies to the conquest of Greece, while his lieutenants passed across the Isthmus of Corinth and subdued the whole of the Peloponnesus (Morea). Thirty thousand Greeks were removed thence by Bajazet's order and transported into Asia, and Turcoman colonies were settled in their stead in these classic regions.

Constantinople had more than once been menaced by Bajazet, and in 1400 he coolly commanded the Greek emperor to surrender his crown, threatening extermination to all the inhabitants of the city in case of refusal. He was preparing to execute these threats, when the desolater was laid desolate and the victor overthrown by the superior might of the Mongols.

THE SECOND MONGOL INVASION OF ASIA.

Timourlenk (*Tamerlane*).—In the midst of the ancient Sogdiana, in a beautiful and well-watered valley, stands Samarcand, the ancient seat of power and literature. The valley is overlooked by the mountains of Ferghana, which are rich in gold, silver, copper, and precious stones, and inhabited by an independent pastoral nation of the Turkish race. In the magnificent city of Kesch, not far from Samarcand, Timour was viceroy of many fertile and populous districts belonging to the Mongolic Khan of Tchagatai, who, like himself, was descended from Jenghis Khan.

Timour, who was a great warrior and an artful man, persuaded the khan to appoint him *nowian*, or prime minister. At the age of thirty-five he had fought his way to undisputed pre-eminence, and was proclaimed Khan of Tchagatai. He chose Samarcand as the capital of his dominion, and openly announced that he would make that dominion comprise the whole habitable earth. It proved more than a boast; for in the thirty-six years of his reign he raged over the world from the

great wall of China to the centre of Russia on the north, and the Mediterranean and the Nile were the western limits of his career, which was pressed eastward as far as the sources of the Ganges.

His triumphs were owing not only to personal valor and to high military genius, but to his eminent skill as a politician and a ruler. His code of laws, which he drew up for the regulation of his army and for the administration of justice and the finances, shows keen observation and deep and sound reflection. From the reports of his emissaries, who were sent by him to travel in all directions, under various disguises, he knew the strength and the weakness of his enemies in each place and at each crisis. This information was carefully collected in registers and delineated on maps, which were kept ready for immediate reference.

Fall of Bajazet.—During the three years that followed the battle of Nicopolis, Bajazet had extended the frontier of his empire to the easternmost parts of Asia Minor.

Timour's dominions were already spread over many countries west of the Caspian Sea, so that a collision between them became inevitable. Each sheltered the princes whom the other had dethroned, and a series of angry complaints and threats followed, which soon led to open insult and actual war. In 1400 Timour assailed the strong city of Sivas. The tidings of its fall recalled Bajazet from the siege of Constantinople. Before he had reached Asia Minor, Timour had marched southward from Sivas, spreading devastation far and wide through the southern regions of Asia Minor. An insult from the Sultan of Egypt had drawn Timour's wrath in a southern direction, and Syria experienced for two years the terror of his arms. In the spring of 1402 Timour marched again against the Osmanli, with 600,000 men. Bajazet advanced with hardly 120,000. On July 20, 1402, the decisive conflict took place on the plain of Angora. Bajazet lost his army and his liberty. He died a prisoner eight months after the battle of Angora. Timour had sufficient magnanimity to set at liberty Musa, Bajazet's son, and to permit him to take the dead body to Broussa for honorable interment in the burial-place of the Osmanli rulers. He himself did not long survive his fallen foe. He died at Otrar (February 1, 1405) while on his march to conquer China.

THE SECOND FOUNDATION OF THE EMPIRE OF THE OSMANLI.

The Civil War.—The Empire of the Osmanli, which during the fourteenth century had acquired such dimensions and vigor, lay

at the beginning of the fifteenth century in apparently irretrievable ruin. Besides the fatal day at Angora, when its veteran army was destroyed, calamity after calamity had poured fast upon the house of Osman. Their ancient rivals in Asia Minor, the Seljukian princes, were reinstated by Timour in their dominions. In Europe the Greek Empire accomplished another partial revival, and regained some of its lost provinces. But the heaviest and seemingly most fatal of afflictions was the civil war which broke out among the sons of Bajazet, and which threatened the utter disintegration and destruction of the relics of their ancestral dominions. Mahomet I. succeeded in 1413 in reuniting the empire, over which he ruled with wisdom and moderation for eight years (1413-1421). This second founder of the Osmanli Empire was a liberal patron of intellectual merit, and his memory is still deservedly cherished and honored among his people.

The Fall of Constantinople.—Amurath II. (1421-1451), the worthy son of Mahomet I., restored the Janissaries to their former fame; he was heroic and at the same time gentle. In order to secure peace on his northwestern frontier he made a ten years' truce with the Hungarians at Szegedin (1444). The treaty was written both in the Hungarian and in the Turkish languages. King Ladislaus swore upon the Gospels, and the Sultan swore upon the Koran, that it should be truly and religiously observed. But Cardinal Julian, the papal legate, released the Hungarians from their oath, and King Ladislaus suddenly marched to the shores of the Black Sea. Amurath hastened from Magnesia once more to vindicate the fame of the Osmanli arms. The battle of Varna ensued, in which Amurath gained a great victory (November 10, 1444). His son, Mahomet II. (1451-1481), inherited all his father's virtues except his moderation, and combined with them a more enterprising spirit. From the commencement of his reign the destruction of the miserable remnant of the Eastern Empire was his ruling passion, and in the 1123d year from the building of Constantinople (1453) he began the siege of that city with the utmost exertion of his powers.

Severed already from Europe by schism, and by the Turkish conquests, this unhappy city saw beneath her walls an army of 300,000 barbarians. In May the city was taken. The last emperor, Constantine Palæologus, died fighting for his empire. Europe was deeply moved; Pope Nicholas V. preached the Crusade; all the Italian states became reconciled at Lodi (1454). In other countries the cross was taken up by thousands. At Lille, the Duke of Burgundy presented, at a banquet, a

EMPIRE OF THE MONGOLS.

EMPIRE OF TIMOUR ABOUT 1400 A.D.

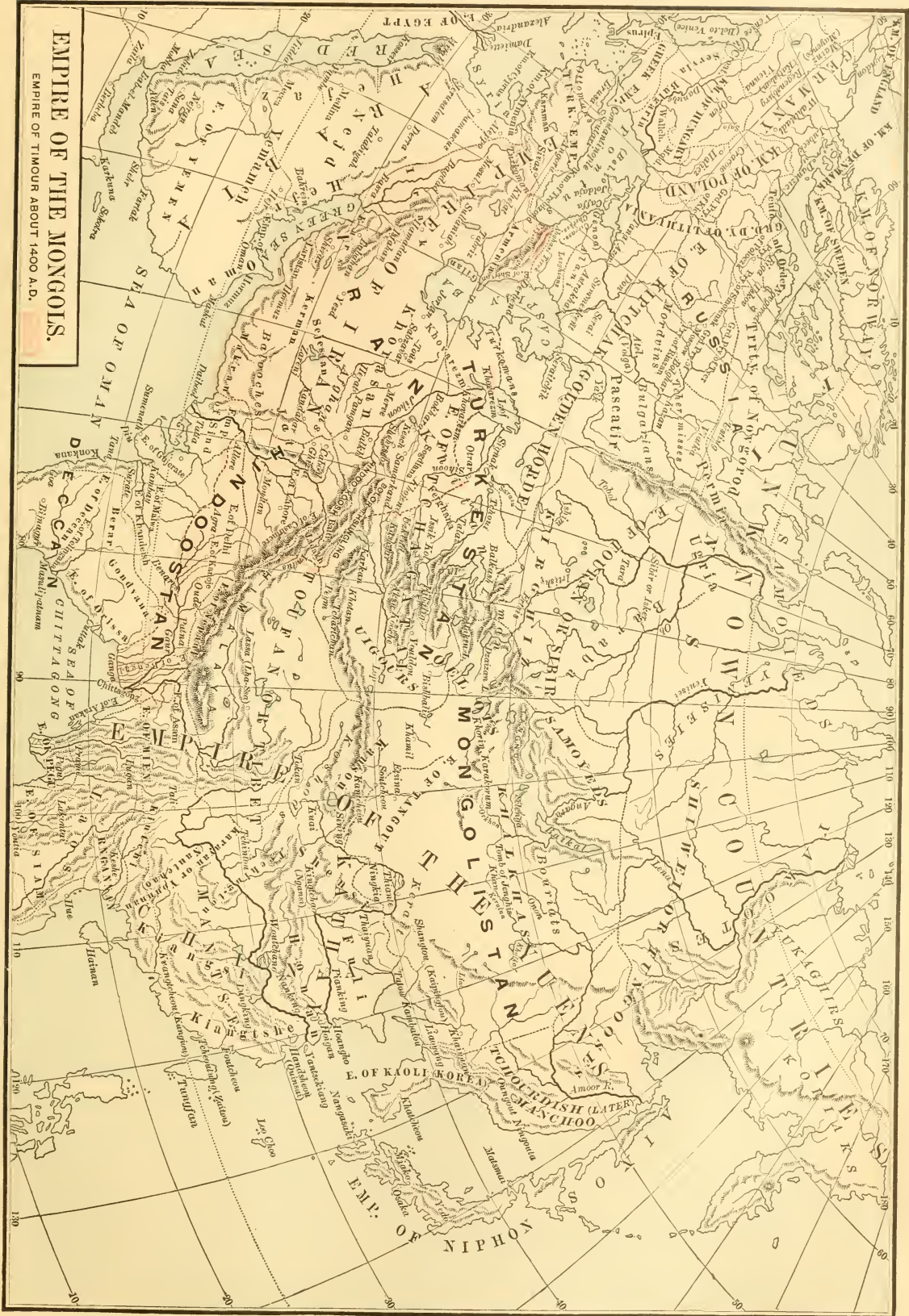


figure of the Church in tears, and swore that he would go and fight the infidels. But the enthusiasm lasted only a short time. Nine days after signing the Treaty of Lodi, the Venetians contracted another with the Turks. Charles VII. would not allow the Crusade to be preached in France; the Duke of Burgundy stayed at home, and the new attempt of John of Calabria on the kingdom of Naples occupied the whole attention of Italy.

Hunniades and Scanderbeg.—The only real champions of Christendom were the Hungarian Hunniades and the Albanian Scanderbeg. The latter had been seen, like Alexander, whose name the Turks bestowed on him, leaping alone upon the wall of a besieged city. Ten years after his death, the Turks divided his bones among themselves, believing that they would thus become invincible. The other *soldier of Christ*, Hunniades, checked their advance, while Scanderbeg made his diversion in the rear. When the Osmanli attacked Belgrade, the bulwark of Hungary, Hunniades broke through the infidel army to throw himself into the town, repulsed during forty days its most vigorous assaults, and was celebrated as the Saviour of Christendom.

Matthias Corvinus.—His son, Matthias Corvinus, whom the gratitude of the Hungarians raised to the throne, opposed his Black Guard, the first regular infantry this nation ever had, to the Janissaries of Mohammed II. Pope Pius II. and Venice allied themselves with this great prince, when their conquest of Servia and Bosnia opened for the Turks the road to Italy. The pope was the soul of the Crusade; he appointed Ancona as the place of muster for all who would go with him to fight the enemies of the faith. But his strength was not sufficient. The aged pope expired on the shore in sight of the Venetian galleys which were to have carried him to Greece (1464).

His successor, Paul II., abandoned the generous policy of Pius. He armed against the heretical Bohemians that Matthias Corvinus whose prowess ought to have been exerted only against the Turks.

Close of the Reign of Mohammed II.—While the Christians weakened themselves in this way by divisions, Mohammed II. swore solemnly, in the mosque which had formerly been St. Sophia, the utter ruin of Christianity. Venice, abandoned by her allies, lost the island of Negropont, which was conquered by the Turks within sight of her fleet. The Turkish cavalry spread at last over the Friuli as far as the river Piave, burning the crops, villages, and palaces of the Venetian nobles; the flames of this conflagration were even visible in the

night from Venice itself. The republic abandoned the unequal struggle, sacrificed Scutari, and submitted to a tribute (1479). It did even more. During the siege of Rhodes, which had been undertaken by the Turkish forces, it was reported that one hundred Turkish vessels, observed, or rather escorted, by the Venetian fleet, had crossed to the coast of Italy—that Otranto had been taken, and its governor sawed in two. Terror was at its height, and would perhaps have been justified by the result of the invasion, if the death of Mohammed II. had not put a stop for a time to the course of Turkish conquest.

Russia under the Tatar Yoke.—In conquering Russia, the Tatars had no wish to take possession of the soil, or to take in their own hands the local administration. They demanded simply an oath of allegiance from the princes, and a certain sum of tribute from the people. The princes perceiving that all attempts at resistance would be fruitless, soon became reconciled to their new position. Instead of seeking to throw off the Khan's authority, they sought to gain his favor. Of all the princes who strove in this way to increase their influence, the most successful were the PRINCES of Moscow.

They "*loved the Tatars beyond measure*" so long as the Khan was irresistibly powerful, but as soon as his power waned, they stood forth as his rivals. When the Golden Horde fell to pieces, these Moscow princes put themselves at the head of the liberation movement, which ultimately freed the country from the Tatar Yoke (1480), during the reign of Ivan III.

The Last Ruriks.—During the Tatar invasion, the title of Grand Prince depended upon the favor of the Khan, and that favor was chiefly enjoyed by the Moscow princes, who eventually secured the title to their family and made it hereditary. This hereditary Grand-Principality of Moscow is the germ of modern Russia. The three principal causes which enabled Moscow first to rival, and then to absorb, the other principalities, were: The cautious policy of its princes, the favor shown to them by the clergy, and the assistance given to them by the Moscow boyars, who played an important part in the administration.

Ivan I. (1328–1341) was the virtual founder of modern Russia; he was the first who assumed the title of *Grand Prince of all Russia*. His grandson was the celebrated Dimitry Donskoi, the victor in the battle of Kulikovo (1380), which proved to be the beginning of the end of the Tatar dominion. During the long reign of his great-grandson, Ivan III. (1462–1505)

and Ivan's son, Vassily III. (1505-1533), the last remains of the appanage system disappeared, and the grand prince of Moscow was left without a single rival who could contest his right to rule as autocrat of all Russia.

Ivan IV., the Terrible (1533-1584), annexed

the three Khanates of the Lower Volga—*Kazan*, *Kiptchack*, and *Astrakhan*—and in that way removed the danger of a foreign domination.

With his son Feodor ended the dynasty of Rurik in the main line, which during seven centuries had wielded the Russian sceptre.

WESTERN EUROPE DURING THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND.

Burgundy.—The name Burgundy was at different times applied to different districts.

I. THE KINGDOM OF THE BURGUNDIANS, founded in 406 in the valley of the Saone and Lower Rhone. It was destroyed by the sons of Clovis in 534.

II. THE KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY, one of the Merovingian kingdoms.

III. THE KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY OR OF PROVENCE, sometimes called Cis-jurane Burgundy, founded by Boso in 877. It included the country between the Saone and the Jura and the valley of the Lower Rhone.

IV. THE KINGDOM OF TRANS-JURANE BURGUNDY, founded by Rudolf in 888, which included Switzerland between the Reuss and the Jura, with the northern part of Savoy.

V. THE KINGDOM OF BURGUNDY, OR THE ARLATIAN KINGDOM, so called after its capital, *Arles*, was formed by the union of Cis-jurane and Trans-jurane Burgundy in 937, by Conrad.

VI. LESSER BURGUNDY was Trans-jurane Burgundy without the northern part of Savoy.

VII. THE LANDGRAVATE OF BURGUNDY was that part of Lesser Burgundy which was situated on both sides of the Aar, between Thun and Solothurn.

VIII. THE CIRCLE OF BURGUNDY was an administrative division of the German Empire, established in 1548, and was formed by the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands (*les Pays de Pardeça*) and the Free County of Burgundy (*les Pays de Pardela*).

IX. THE FREE COUNTY OF BURGUNDY (*Franche Comté*), or Palatinate of Burgundy, to which the name Cis-jurane Burgundy properly belonged, was the country between the Saone and the Jura. Until its conquest by Louis XIV. in 1678, it was a county of the German Empire.

X. THE DUCHY OF BURGUNDY (*Bourgogne*), the most northerly part of the old Kingdom of the Burgundians, was always a fief of the crown of France. When the last of the old dukes died, in 1001, it was incorporated by

King Robert of France with the royal domain. Henry I. granted the duchy, however, in 1034, to his brother Robert, who became the ancestor of the Capetian dukes of Burgundy. They became extinct with Philip de Rouvre, in 1361.

THE UNION OF ARTOIS WITH THE COUNTY OF BURGUNDY, AND OF BOTH WITH FLANDERS.—Philip Augustus of France married Isabella, heiress of Artois. St. Louis granted the County of Artois to his brother Robert. When his race became extinct in the male line, in 1343, it reverted to the *heirs* of Mathilda, daughter of Robert II. and aunt to the last count.

This was Mathilda's eldest granddaughter Joan, who from her inherited Artois, and from her grandfather Otto, the County of Burgundy. She was married to Eudo IV., Duke of Burgundy, and their grandson (their only son, Philip, fell at Crécy), Philip, became, in 1349, Duke of Burgundy and Count of Franche Comté and Artois. He married Margaret, heiress of Flanders, Malines, Antwerp, Nevers, Auxerre, and Rethel. On Philip's early death in 1362, without heirs male, the Duchy of Burgundy reverted, according to law, to the French crown, while the Counties of Burgundy and Artois were inherited by Margaret, the aged dowager-countess of Flanders, as heiress of her sister Joan. On Margaret's death, in 1382, they descended to her grandchild, Margaret, who in early youth had been the wife of the last Capetian Duke of Burgundy.

Burgundian Dukes of the House of Valois.—On the death of the last Capetian Duke of Burgundy, in 1362, King John of France immediately took possession of the duchy. He went to Dijon and swore (December 23, 1362), on the altar of St. Benignus, that he would maintain its privileges. Nine months afterward (September 6, 1363), he disposed of the Duchy of Burgundy in the following terms: "Recalling again to memory the excellent and praiseworthy services of our right dearly beloved Philip, the fourth of our

sons, who freely exposed himself to death with us, and, all wounded as he was, remained unwavering and fearless at the battle of Poitiers . . . we do concede to him and give him the duchy and peerage of Burgundy, together with all that we may have therein of right, possession, and proprietorship. . . . for the which gift our said son has done us homage as duke and premier peer of France."

This Philip the Bold obtained in 1369, by his marriage with Margaret of Flanders, widow of Philip de Rouvre, the County of Burgundy, as a fief of the empire, and, on the death of his father-in-law in 1383, the Counties of Flanders, Artois, Rhétel, Auxerre, and Nevers, all fiefs of the crown of France.

By this alliance it was hoped that France would absorb Flanders, and that the two nations, being united under one government, their interest would gradually become one. It did not turn out so. The Flemish interests turned the scale. Interests hostile to France, commercial alliance with England—commercial at first, then political.

Bourguignons and Armagnacs.—Charles V., the Wise, was succeeded at a too early age by his son Charles VI. (1380–1422), who, at his father's decease was a minor, and passed the greater part of his mature age in a state of insanity. Both these causes of weakness occasioned a struggle for supreme power between Louis of Orleans, the king's brother, and Philip of Burgundy, the king's uncle. On the death of Philip, in 1404, the contest was continued by his son, John the Fearless, who in 1407 caused the Duke of Orleans to be assassinated at Paris, and openly avowed and justified the deed. A civil war ensued, France was divided into two furious parties: the *Armagnacs*, so called from the Count of Armagnac, father-in-law of the young Charles of Orleans, and the *Bourguignons*, or Burgundian faction. The *Armagnacs* supported the imbecile king and his son, the Dauphin; the *Bourguignons* were for a regency, to be conducted by the Queen, Isabel of Bavaria.

The House of Lancaster in England.—Henry IV. (1400–1413) had during the first half of his reign a very troublesome time. With hostilities from France, Wales, and Scotland, the new king found himself obliged to deal with disaffection and conspiracy among his own subjects. To this reign belong the adventures of the Hotspurs, Glendowers, and others, to whose temperament and character, if not to their true history, Shakespeare has given such vivid reality. Henry IV. had wholly lost before his death the measure of popularity he possessed in the early portion of his reign. His jealousy and suspicion had

extended even to his own son, whom he had excluded from all power, lest a disloyal use should be made of it. On his deathbed he counselled this son to keep the great barons out of mischief by employing them in war; and bequeathed to him the policy of religious persecution, as the price that must be paid if the clergy were to be used as a balance against the more powerful among the laity. The heir-apparent was fully prepared to act upon these maxims.

When Henry V. (1413–1422) ascended the English throne, the Orleanists had again gained the preponderance in France. They unfurled the Oriflamme against the Duke of Burgundy, who was now, in fact, hard-pressed. Henry negotiated with both parties. But while the Orleanists made difficulties about granting him the independent possession of the old English provinces, Burgundy declared himself ready to acknowledge him as king, but more with a view to turn to his own advantage the diversion occasioned by the English arms than to make over France to foreign dominion.

The Second Invasion of France.—Henry could thus reckon on the sympathies of a part of the population of France when, in 1415, he led the power of England across the sea. The successful battle of Agincourt (October 25, 1415), in which he destroyed the flower of the French nobility, gave him an undoubted superiority. But now the Duke of Burgundy, offended by the harshness of the terms proposed by Henry, as well as by the English king's personal bearing toward him, resolved to join the party of the Dauphin, and thus to restore peace to France. Negotiations were accordingly opened, and the Duke was invited to discuss the matter with the Dauphin. But the latter mistrusted the Duke, who was basely murdered in presence and with connivance of the Dauphin, at an interview to which he had been invited on the bridge of Montreuil (September, 1419). To avenge his father's death upon the Dauphin, Philip, the new duke, resolved to sacrifice France, and even his own family, which had eventual claims to the crown, by making it over to the English king. A treaty was accordingly concluded at Arras (toward the end of 1419) between Philip of Burgundy and King Henry V., by which Philip agreed to recognize Henry as king of France after the death of Charles VI.; and in consideration of Charles's mental imbecility, Henry was at once to assume the government of the kingdom, after marrying Catherine, the youngest of the daughters of the French king. This treaty was definitively executed at Troyes (May 21, 1420) by Charles VI., who knew not what he was signing, and by his Queen, Isabel

FRANCE

During the Second English
Invasion.

1415-1453.



of Bavaria, who was stimulated at once by hatred of her son the Dauphin, and a doting affection for her daughter Catherine. The treaty was ratified by the States General of France and by the Parliament of Paris. Henry V. obtained possession of that capital, which was occupied by an English garrison under the command of the Duke of Clarence, and on December 1, 1420, the kings of France and England and the Duke of Burgundy entered Paris with great pomp. Finally, the birth of a son (1421) seemed to fill up the measure of his prosperity. It was a very extraordinary position which Henry V. now occupied. The two great kingdoms of the West were (without being fused into one) to remain united forever under the house of Lancaster. Philip the Good of Burgundy was bound to him by ties of blood and by hostility to a common foe; as heir of France Henry sat in the Parliament of Paris, by which the murderers of the late Duke, who were also the chief opponents of the new state of things, were prosecuted. Another promising connection was opened to him by the marriage of the youngest of his brothers with Jacqueline of Holland and Hainault, who possessed still more extensive hereditary claims. He recommended his eldest brother to Queen Joan of Naples, to be adopted as her son and heir. The king of Castile and the heir of Portugal were descended from his father's sisters. The pedigrees of Southern and Western Europe alike met in the house of Lancaster, the head of which thus seemed to be the common head of all.

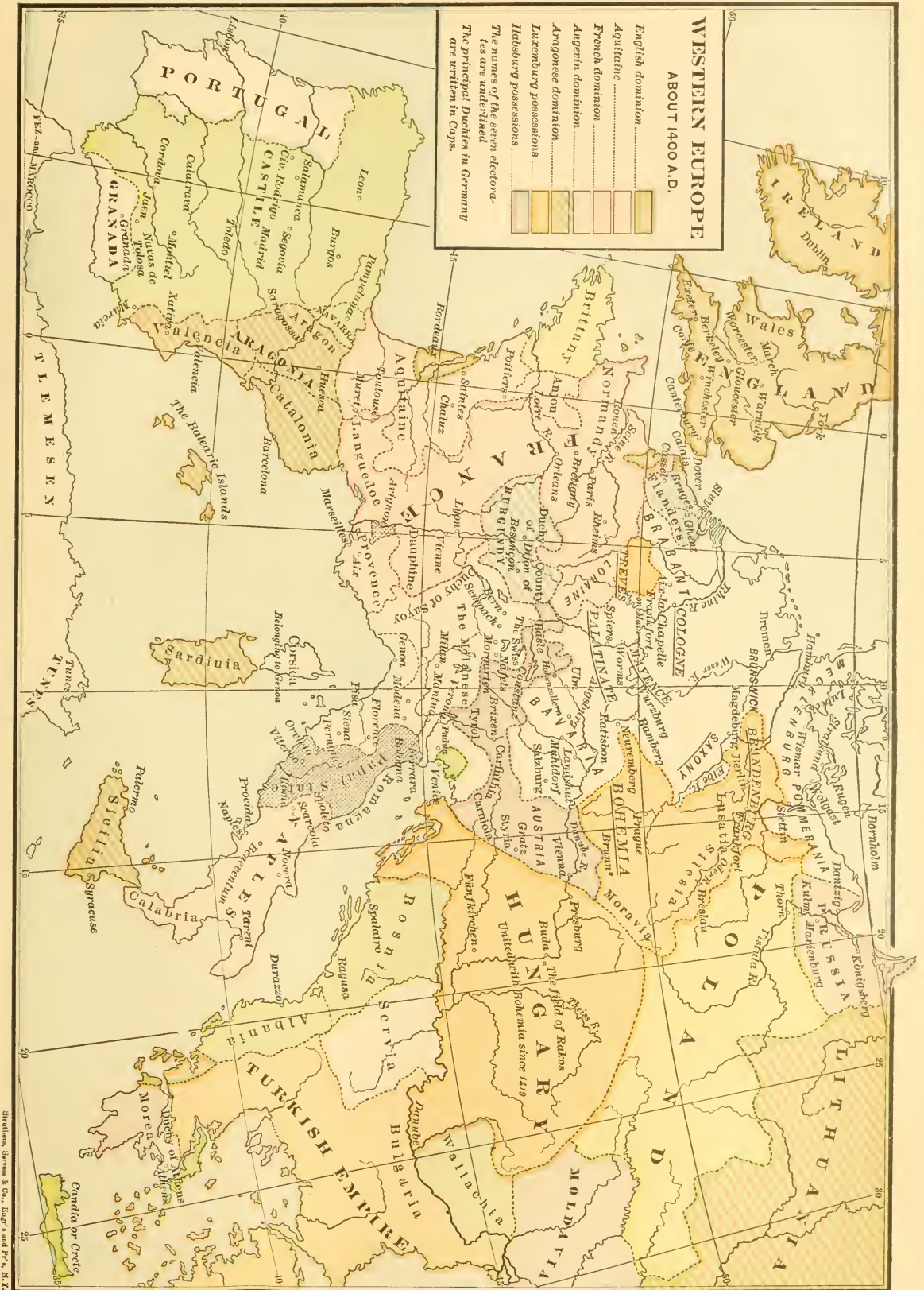
But it seems sometimes as though fortune were specially making a mock of man's frailty. In this fulness of power and of expectations, Henry V. was attacked by a disease which men did not know yet how to cure, and to which he succumbed (August 31, 1422). His heir was a boy nine months old. Henry on his deathbed had appointed his brother, the Duke of Bedford, to the regency of France; his younger brother, the Duke of Gloucester, to that of England, and the Earl of Warwick to be guardian of his infant son.

The Recovery of France.—Poor Charles VI., of France, within six weeks followed his heroic son-in-law to the grave (October 22d), and the Dauphin, assuming the title of Charles VII., caused himself to be crowned at Poitiers. The treaty of Troyes had rallied the national feeling of the French to the Dauphin, whose manners and disposition, as well as his lawful claim to the throne of France and the popular hatred of the English usurpers, had rendered him a favorite with the majority of the French nation; and as a counterpoise to his influence the Regent Bedford drew closer his connec-

tions both with the Dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, and tried to rule France with an increased participation on the part of the *States General*. But all his efforts could only be directed toward preserving these kingdoms for his nephew, Henry VI. We might almost wonder that this succeeded so well for a time; in the long run it was impossible. The feeling of French nationality, which had already met the victor himself with secret warnings, found its most wonderful expression in JEANNE DARC, the *Maid* who revived in the French their old attachment to their native king and his divine right. But Charles had already gained a firm footing before the appearance of the *Maid* by appeasing the enmity of the Duke of Burgundy, who really held the balance of power between the French and the English.

Immediately after the death of the Regent Bedford, he concluded with Charles VII. the treaty of Arras (September 21, 1435), by which he received extensive grants in France and extended his boundary far beyond the river Somme (see Plate XL., upper map), with a condition, however, that the towns of Picardy might be repurchased by the French king for the sum of 400,000 crowns. Burgundy's alliance with France proved to be the beginning of the end of the English dominion. On April 17, 1436, Paris opened its gates to Charles VII. In 1450 the English were forced to evacuate Normandy. In July, 1453, Charles VII. entered Guyenne with a large army. Talbot, the greatest of the English commanders, fell fighting, in his eightieth year, before the town of Castillon, and his fate decided that of the duchy. Bordeaux, the last town which held out, submitted to Charles in October, 1453; and thus, with the exception of Calais, the English were expelled from all their possessions in France.

Greatness of the House of Burgundy.—Philip the Good, by his alliance with Charles VII., had really made the expulsion of the English possible. In 1453 he was the most powerful vassal in Western Europe. From the marriage of his grandfather with the heiress Margaret had issued three sons, John the Fearless, Antony, and Philip, who on their father's death divided the inheritance among them. Each of them extended his share by marriage or by re-annexations. But all these portions, with their augmentations, fell ultimately to Philip the Good. His possessions stretched from the Zuyder Zee to near Paris, and from the Narrow Seas to the Jura. Flanders was one of the most prosperous countries of Europe. Of this prosperity the woollen manufacture was the chief foundation, in commemoration of which had been instituted (1430) the order of the



Golden Fleece. Ghent and Bruges were among the richest and most populous cities of Europe. But, on the other hand, the dominions of Philip the Good were farther removed than those of any prince in Europe from forming a compact whole. His various territories had as little geographical as they had political connection. They lay in two large masses, the two Burgundies forming one, and the Low Countries forming the other, so that their common master could not go from one of his capitals to another without passing through a foreign territory.

The War of the Roses.—The restoration of the lawful king in France reacted in England. There arose—awakened by the French restoration, and in a certain analogy with what happened in France—the recollection of the rights which had been set aside by the accession of the House of Lancaster. Their representative, Richard, Duke of York, had hitherto kept quiet; for he was fully convinced that a right cannot perish merely because it lies dormant. Cautiously and step by step, while letting others run the first risk, he at last came forward openly with his claim to the crown. Great was the astonishment of Henry VI., who as far as his memory reached had been regarded as king, to find his right to the highest dignity doubted and denied. But such was now the case. The nation was split into two parties, one of which held fast to the monarchy established by the parliament (the Lancastrians, or *red rose*), while the other wished to recur to the principle of legitimate succession then violated (the Yorkists, or *white rose*). The Genealogical Table will show the descent of both parties. The Yorkists *as such*, descendants of the fifth son of Edward III., could make no claim against the Lancastrians (descendants of the fourth son of Edward IV.), but they based their right to the throne on their descent from Lionel of Clarence (third son of Edward III.).

The crisis was precipitated by the discontent of the English people at the loss of France, by the unpopularity of Henry VI.'s French wife, the imperious Margaret of Anjou, and by the hatred felt toward her minister, William de la Pole, Duke of Suffolk. Still, Richard of York did not wish to claim openly the crown to which, as heir-presumptive, he might look to succeed without bloodshed. But the birth of a Prince of Wales (October, 1453) precluded all hope of a peaceful issue of the rival claims of York and Lancaster.

About a month before this birth Henry VI. had sunk into one of his strange fits of lethargy (an heirloom of his maternal grandfather). During the king's illness the Duke of York

had been made *Protector of the Realm*, but the rights of the king and of his infant heir were sedulously reserved. The recovery of the king, in 1454, was followed by the restoration to power of the king's unpopular advisers. The Duke of York and the Earls of Salisbury and Warwick now took up arms against Henry. They were victorious at St. Albans (May 22, 1455). This was the first blood shed in a war which was to last thirty years (1455–1485), which cost the lives of eighty nobles, and exterminated the ancient baronage of England. York took his king prisoner, carried him in triumph back to London, and contented himself with the title of Protector. Margaret of Anjou now armed the northern counties, but she was beaten at Northampton (July 10, 1460), and the conqueror, no longer concealing his pretensions, made the parliament declare him *heir-presumptive* to the throne. He was thus close to the object of his ambition, when he encountered near Wakefield an army which the indefatigable Margaret had again assembled. He accepted battle in spite of the inferiority of his forces, was defeated and slain, and his gory head, with a paper crown upon it, was placed upon the wall of York (December 30, 1460).

Warwick now made the London populace proclaim the son of York king, under the name of Edward IV. (1461), and soon led him to meet Margaret at Towton. It was there that during a whole day, in a heavy fall of snow, the two parties fought with a fury which was remarkable even in civil war (March 29, 1461).

The queen fled to France and promised Louis XI. to give him Calais as a pledge in exchange for his feeble assistance. But the fleet which brought the French assistance was destroyed by a storm; she lost the battle of Hexham (1464), and with it her last hope. The unfortunate Henry soon fell once more into the hands of his enemies, and the queen with her son reached France.

After the victory the spoil had to be divided. Warwick, although he had the principal share, had far less power and influence than he had expected. He therefore made friends with the very Margaret of Anjou who had beheaded his father, and brought her back into England.

Edward did not awake until he heard that Warwick was marching upon him with upward of 60,000 men. Betrayed by his own troops at Nottingham, he fled so precipitately that he landed almost alone in the states of the Duke of Burgundy. But Edward was soon recalled to England. He disembarked at Ravenspur (at the mouth of the Humber) on the very spot on which in former times Henry IV. had landed to overthrow Richard II. He advanced with-

out impediment, and declared by the way that he demanded only the inheritance of his father, the Duchy of York. But as soon as his army was strong enough he threw down the mask, and conquered the Lancastrians at Barnet (April 4, 1471). Margaret, again attacked before she could gather round her her remaining forces, was conquered and taken prisoner with her son at Tewkesbury (May 4, 1471). The Prince of Wales was murdered after the battle, and on the same day that Edward IV. entered London, Henry VI. is said to have perished in the Tower by the hand of Gloucester himself (1471).

From that moment the triumph of the *white rose* was assured—Edward had only his brother to fear. He anticipated Clarence by putting him to death, but Edward himself was poisoned by Gloucester (1483).

Edward had hardly left the throne to his little son, Edward V., when Gloucester caused himself to be appointed *Protector*. A subservient parliament next declared the young princes *bastards* and *sons of a bastard*.

The rabble threw their bonnets into the air, crying, "God save King Richard!" and he accepted the crown, "*in accordance with the voice of the people*." The children were smothered in the Tower, but Richard was far from being firmly seated on his throne. In the depths of Britany there lived a descendant of the House of Lancaster, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who by many was believed to be the rightful heir to the crown.

TRANSITION PERIOD.

Descent of the Tudors.—John of Gaunt had married, three years before his death, his mistress Catherine Swyneford. Their four children were legitimized by act of parliament in 1397. Margaret Beaufort became, in 1455, heiress of the immense wealth of this younger branch of the House of Lancaster. She married in that year Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, half-brother to King Henry VI. For on the death of Henry V. his widow had become the wife of Owen Tudor, a gentleman of her household and a native of Wales. Tudor had three sons by this marriage, the eldest of which was the afore-mentioned Edmund Tudor. Their son was Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond.

The Duke of Buckingham (descendant of the younger branch of the Beauforts) to whose services Richard largely owed the crown, headed an insurrection in favor of this Henry Tudor. He paid for his rash attempt with his life (1483).

Two years later (1485) Richmond made another attempt, landing at Milford Haven (in

the southwest of Wales). Richard, not knowing whom to trust, hastened the catastrophe by advancing on Bosworth, where he was completely defeated and slain (August 22, 1485).

Henry VII.—The paternal relationship of Richmond, and his being so little known in England, were not circumstances in his favor. But the men opposed to Richard were bent upon displacing him, and there was no other quarter to which they could look with the same prospect of success. They were men, moreover, who had learned to count it an advantage that the king should not be allowed to feel himself so strong as to be tempted to assume independence from his nobles. This notion had been the prolific source of incalculable mischief during the last hundred years. But it had now pretty nearly done its work. Henry VII. suffered from it. He lived, however, to frustrate one conspiracy after another, and putting down, with a strong hand, that liveried and armed following of the nobility which had served to make them all so many petty kings, he left the English throne in a much more stable condition than he found it.

Henry's marriage with Elizabeth, the eldest daughter of Edward IV., no doubt contributed largely to this result, the conflicting claims of York and Lancaster being thus harmonized in his person.

But even this event might not have sufficed to insure tranquillity, apart from the general caution and ability of his rule. His firm and sagacious policy sufficed to smooth the way for the great transitions from the mediæval to the modern in English history.

Louis XI. and Charles the Bold.—Charles VII. of France, created (1439) a permanent army of over 7,000 men, which was not to subsist, like the bands formerly raised by the nobles, by robbery and plunder, but to receive regular pay. Nine years later (1448) he instituted a militia of *Free Archers*, who were to remain at home and train themselves in arms on Sundays. By these measures the nobility were deprived of all military command except through the authority of the king. Thus the contest was now vigorously entered on between the French king and his feudal nobility which ended in making France a powerful and absolute monarchy.

Louis XI. (1462–1483) deprived at his accession the nobility of all influence. Their wrath did not burst out in revolt until the weakness of the old Duke of Burgundy had thrown the whole of his power in the hands of his son the celebrated Charles the Bold. Then the great vassals leagued together under his leadership "*for the public weal*" (1464). Louis broke up the league by the concessions of the

Treaty of Conflans, by which the towns on the Somme should be restored to Charles the Bold and Normandy granted to the Duke of Berry; to all the rest, fortresses, lordships, and pensions. The king not only evaded its execution, but obliged the states general of the Kingdom (at Tours in 1466) to annul the principal articles of the Treaty of Conflans.

About this time (1467) Charles the Bold became, by the death of his father, Duke of Burgundy. Louis XI., who still hoped to appease him, went himself to meet him at Péronne (1468). He had scarcely arrived when the duke heard of the revolt of the citizens of Liège, a revolt excited by agents of the king. The fury of the duke was so great that for a moment the king feared for his own life. The duke contented himself with forcing him to confirm the Treaty of Conflans, and with bringing him before Liège to witness the destruction of the town. The king on his return did not fail to cause the states general to annul all that he had sworn.

A more formidable confederation than that of the *Public Weal* was next formed against him. His brother, on whom he had just bestowed Guyenne, and the Dukes of Burgundy and Brittany had drawn into it most of the nobles who had before been faithful to the king. They invited the King of Aragon, Juan II., who claimed the province of Roussillon, and the King of England, who claimed "*his kingdom of France*." The death of his brother could alone break the league, and his brother died (1472). He now repulsed Juan II. from Roussillon, Charles the Bold from Picardy, and secured all his enemies within the kingdom. When the English came in 1475, Louis XI. arranged a meeting at Pequigny (near Amiens) between himself and Edward IV.; the Dauphin was betrothed to Edward's eldest daughter Elizabeth (subsequently the Queen of Henry VII.) and peace concluded.

After this time Louis XI. had nothing more to fear from Charles the Bold, who had conceived the design of re-establishing, on a vast scale, the ancient kingdom of Burgundy by uniting to his own states, Lorraine, Provence, Dauphiné, and Switzerland. Louis XI. took care not to make him uneasy; he prolonged the truces and allowed him "*to go and knock his head against the Swiss*."

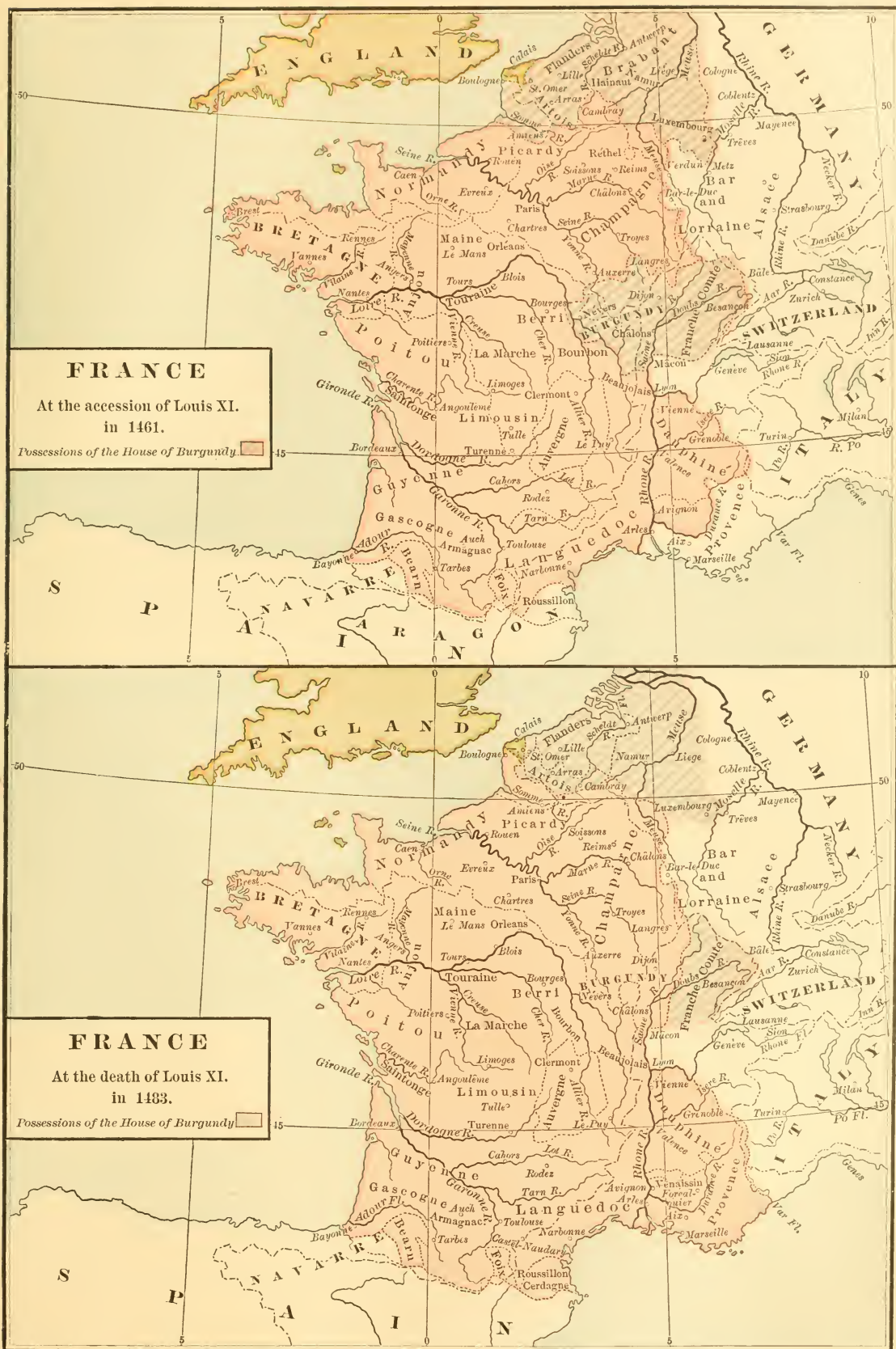
Charles the Bold and the Swiss.—The Austrian possessions in the Upper Elsass and Suabia had been mortgaged by their duke, Sigismund, to Charles the Bold. The tyranny exercised by Charles' governor, Hagenbach, made the inhabitants try their utmost to pay off the mortgage. But Charles, who wanted to keep the territory, refused to take it, and

ordered Hagenbach to resist. But he was seized, tried, and executed (May, 1474). Charles avenged his governor by ravaging Elsass, which called upon the Swiss for aid and protection. They allied themselves with their old enemies, the Austrians, and defeated the Burgundians at Héricourt (November 13, 1474). The duke invaded Switzerland, took Granson, and drowned all the garrison, who had surrendered to him on parole. The Swiss army, however, was advancing; Charles had the imprudence to go to meet it. Taking his stand on the hill which still bears his name, he saw them rush down from the mountains crying, *Granson! Granson!* The Burgundians tried again and again without success to break through the forest of pikes which advanced at a run. The rout was soon complete; the duke's camp, his guns, and his treasures, fell into the conquerors' hands (March, 1476). Three months afterward, he again attacked the Swiss, at Morat, and experienced a still more bloody defeat.

Fall of Charles the Bold.—René II., who had been deprived by Charles of his inheritance, took advantage of his distress to attempt the recovery of his Duchy of Lorraine. He drove the Burgundians from the open country into the town of Nancy, which he took (October, 1476). Charles resolved immediately to attempt the recovery of Nancy. He assaulted the town in the very presence of René's army. The assault was repulsed, and René then offered him battle (January 5, 1477). The Burgundians had to retreat, during which Charles was slain unrecognized. Thus perished miserably, in the midst of his ambitious dreams, Charles of Burgundy, a prince who displayed no single sign of deep or enlarged policy, but whose whole career was one simple embodiment of military force—not a man to found an empire, but the very man to lose the dominions which he had himself inherited and conquered.

The Duchy of Burgundy was now united with the French crown. Louis XI. had hoped to obtain the whole inheritance of Charles the Bold by marrying the Dauphin to his daughter, Marie de Valois. But the States of Flanders bestowed the hand of their sovereign on Maximilian of Austria, afterward Emperor and grandfather of Emperor Charles V.

End of Louis XI.—Charles VIII.—When Louis XI. left the kingdom to his infant son (1483), France, which had suffered much in silence, at length raised her voice. The states general, assembled in 1484 by the regent, Anne de Beaujeu, wished to give its delegates the chief influence in the Council of Regency, to vote the supplies for only two years, at the end of which they would be again assembled,



and themselves to decide on the taxes which should be levied. But the assembly was suddenly dissolved. The regent continued the system of Louis XI. by her firmness with regard to the nobles. She overpowered the Duke of Orleans, who disputed with her the regency, and prepared the annexation of Brittany to the crown by marrying her brother to the heiress of that duchy (1491). The possessors of three great fiefs, Burgundy, Provence, and Brittany, having died without male issue, the French crown dismembered the first (1477), acquired the second by bequest (1481), and the third by means of a marriage (1491).

THE EMPIRE AND THE PAPACY.

Rienzi.—The papacy had lost much of its influence by the removal of the papal court to Avignon in 1305, where it remained more than seventy years. During this time Rome was convulsed by deadly feuds between the noble families of the Orsini, Colonna, and Savelli. The monuments of antiquity—the Arch of Titus, and the Colosseum were fortified as the strongholds of rival clans. At this time (1347), Cola di Rienzi sought to revive the ancient republic. Of humble origin, he was the friend of Petrarch the poet, and possessed a fiery eloquence that moved the masses. Elected tribune, he ruled for seven months, when he was driven out by the cardinals and the nobles. When he afterward returned (1354) as papal senator of Innocent VI., to aid in winning back Rome to subjection to the Holy See, he found that his power was gone. He disgusted the people with pomps and shows, and while trying to escape in disguise, was put to death. Cardinal Albornoz succeeded in restoring order in Rome.

The Council of Constanz.—This was the period of the attacks on the Church by Italian and English writers. The schism which ensued soon after the restoration of the Papal residence to Rome by Gregory XI. in 1376, was also most prejudicial to the papacy. After the death of Gregory, through dissensions among the cardinals, the tiara was claimed by a pope and an anti-pope. The Council of Pisa, assembled to decide this dispute in 1409, only more embroiled the fray. It deposed both the rival popes, Gregory XIII. and Benedict XIII., and elected Alexander V. in their place. But as the deposed popes found many adherents, it became necessary to appeal to another council, which was assembled at Constanz in 1414.

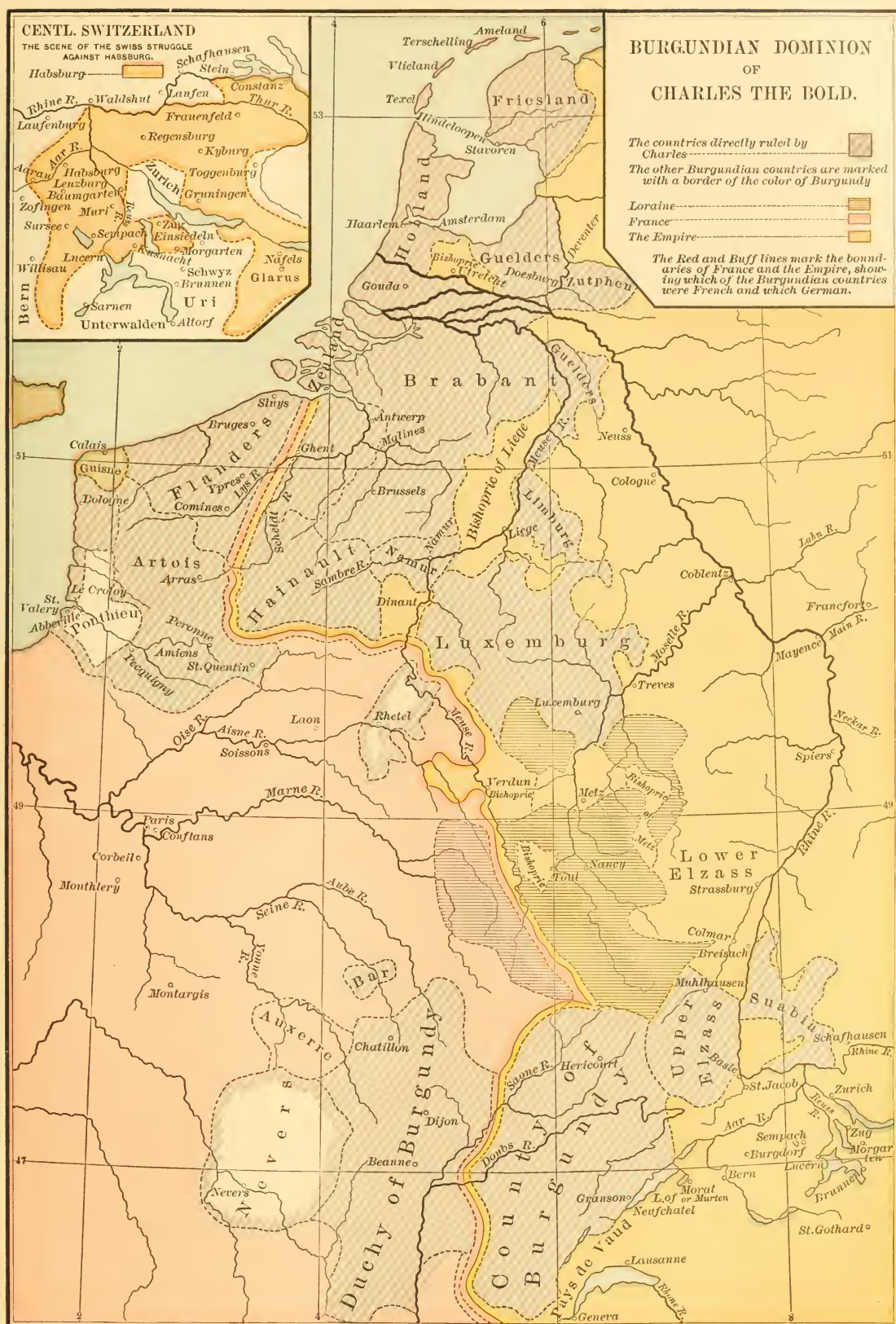
It announced at once the three great objects it wished to accomplish: The suppression of heresy; the healing of the schism; and the

reformation of the Church. The reforming party in the council, principally led by French ecclesiastics (Jean Gerson, Nicholas de Clémanges and Pierre d'Ailly), proclaimed *its superiority over the pope*, and then took up the suppression of heresy. It condemned the doctrines of the Englishman Wiclif, and the chief missionary and developer of this doctrine, John Huss. This Huss (1375-1415) was quite as much a politician as a theologian. He wrote in the vernacular (Bohemian) tongue, defended the nationality of Bohemia against foreigners, and withstood the popes especially, as being foreigners. But he did not attack the papacy itself. He had repaired to the council under a safe conduct from Emperor Sigismund. In violation of this pledge, he was condemned to be burned (July, 1415), and his disciple, Jerome of Prague, underwent afterward the same fate (1416). After the execution of Huss, *the healing of the schism* was taken up. The three popes were deposed and Martin V. was elected (November, 1417) with the understanding that he should reform the Church.

The Hussite Wars.—Terrible was the indignation of the Bohemians at the execution of Huss. His followers, the Hussites, attempted to spread his doctrines by force. Led by the little Procop and by the one-eyed Zisca, they carried everything before them, and on Procop's death the drum made of his skin continued to lead those barbarians, and beat through Germany its murderous roll. After the death of Wenceslaus in 1419, his brother, Emperor Sigismund, was heir to the Bohemian throne. He was crowned in Prague, but the Hussites not only forced him to leave the country but drove back the imperial troops. Sigismund was disgracefully defeated (1422) at Deutsch-Brod.

The Imperial Crown Devolves on the Habsburgs.—Sigismund, the last of the House of Luxemburg, died December 9, 1437. He left only a daughter, wedded to the then Albert, Duke of Austria; which Albert, on the strength of this, came to the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary, as his wife's inheritance, and to that of the empire by election. Died thereupon in a few months; "three crowns, Bohemia, Hungary, and the empire in that one year, 1438, and then next year he quitted them all, for a fourth and more lasting crown, as is hoped."

At the death of Albert II. the Germans elected to the imperial throne Frederick III., eldest son of Ernest the Iron, who gradually inherited all the Habsburg possessions. From this time the imperial crown was transmitted in the House of Habsburg as if it had been an hereditary possession.



Princely Houses of Germany.—All the leading princely houses of Germany which have retained their power to the present time had already established themselves in the fifteenth century.

The Hohenzollerns, ancestors of the present Emperor of Germany, had been confirmed in the permanent possession of Brandenburg. Prussia was held (since 1226) by the Knights of the Teutonic Order, who had conquered it from its heathen inhabitants. By the peace of Thorn (October 19, 1466) the knights had been obliged to cede a part of their dominions and to consent to hold the rest under the sovereignty of Poland. After the extinction of the Askanian house (1423), Sigismund invested Frederick the Warlike, of the House of Wettin, Margrave of Meissen, with the *electoral Duchy of Saxony*. In 1455 the two young princes, Ernst and Albert, sons of the Elector Frederick II., were carried off from the Castle of Altenburg by *Cunz von Kauffungen*, but soon voluntarily returned. They became the ancestors of the two lines of the House of Wettin, the Ernestine line (to which belongs the present Prince of Wales), and the Albertine line, represented by the present King of Saxony. The two great duchies of Franconia and Suabia had become extinct in the thirteenth century. Different branches of the House of Wittelsbach ruled in Bavaria and the Rhenish Palatinate.

The Hansa.—In the second half of the thirteenth century several seaport and trading cities between the Baltic and Elbe had formed a commercial league. They attained in the fourteenth century wide extent and great power. After this time the name Hansa (*i.e.*, trade guild) was commonly applied to the league. Since 1350 over ninety cities, extending from the mouth of the Schelde to Esthonia, besides many inland cities, belonged to this Hansa. The chief tribunal of the league was at Lubeck; inferior tribunals were at Dantzic, Brunswick, and Cologne. On the coast of the Baltic was the main strength of the Hansa, which overshadowed the power of the Scandinavian kings—much more, therefore, than of the neighboring German princes. Their principal trading stations were Novgorod, Stockholm, Wisby (in Gothland), Bergen, Bruges, and London.

Free Imperial Cities.—All over Germany and especially in Franconia, Suabia, on the upper Danube, and on the Rhine, had arisen a number (ninety-five) of free imperial cities not included in the dominions of any of the princes, and depending immediately upon the empire. The liberties and privileges of the imperial cities were fostered by the emperors, in order

that they might afford some counterpoise to the power of the prelates and nobles, whose natural enemies they were, and with whom they waged continual war. The most considerable were: In *Franconia*, Mainz and Frankfort; in *Bavaria*, Neuremberg and Ratibon; in *Suabia*, Ulm and Augsburg; in *Alsace*, Strassburg; in *Lorraine*, Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle; in *Saxony*, Dortmund and Magdeburg.

The Swiss League.—The land we now call Switzerland was, about 1300, divided into various small districts. There were found four imperial cities (*Zürich, Bern, Basle, and Schaffhausen*) and a number of small districts, among the most important of which were those belonging to the houses of Savoy and Habsburg. In 1308, three cantons, *Schweyz, Uri, and Unterwalden*, which from time immemorial had enjoyed a democratic form of government, leagued together against the encroachments of the House of Habsburg. When it attempted to reduce the refractory cantons, Leopold of Habsburg was completely defeated at the famous battle of Morgarten (November 16, 1315). After this event the three cantons entered into a perpetual union (1318), which was gradually joined by various other districts. After Lucerne joined them in 1332 they were called the *four forest cantons*. In 1351 they were joined by Zurich, Glarus, Zug, and Bern. Leopold of Habsburg, who tried to reduce Lucerne to obedience, fell with 2,000 knights at Sempach (1386). A new attempt to coerce the confederates ended in the Habsburg defeat at Naefels (1388). In the beginning of the fifteenth century the eight cantons were a recognized power, under the name of the *Old League of High Germany*. The names of *Swiss* and *Switzerland* did not come into use till after the expedition of Charles VII. of France, in 1444, undertaken at the request of the Emperor Frederick III., with a view to defend the town of Zurich, which had claimed his protection, against the attacks of the other cantons. In the course of the fifteenth century the Swiss began to adopt the singular trade of hiring themselves out to fight the battles of foreigners. Switzerland became a sort of nursery for soldiers. The peculiar arm of the Swiss infantry was a long lance, which they grasped in the middle, and the firm hold thus obtained is said to have been the chief secret of their victories.

THE PYRENÆAN PENINSULA.

The Christian Kingdoms.—Resistance to the Mohammedans in Spain began in the Northern mountainous region of Cantabria and

Asturia, which even the Visigoths had not wholly subdued, although Asturia was called Gothia.

This Christian principality of Asturia (sometimes called *Oviedo*), after the conquest of the country as far as the Douro by Alfonso III. was called (916) the *Kingdom of Leon*, after the new residence, *Leon*. *Castile*, so-called from the *castles* erected against the Moors, was an eastern county of this kingdom. East of Leon there grew up the Kingdom of Navarre, mostly on the southern but partly on the northern side of the Pyrenees. It guarded the pass of Roncesvalles. At first a county under French supremacy, it gradually became independent. Sancho I. assumed the title of *King of Navarre* (905) and subjugated Aragon, originally a Frankish county, to the north of Navarre. His grandson, Sancho the Great (970-1035), united the whole of Christian Spain with the sole exception of Leon. On his death his kingdom was divided among his sons. Ferdinand, who had married the heiress of Leon, got Castile. Thus the united kingdom of Leon and Castile was formed. Garcia (1053-1054) became king of Navarre and Ramiro (1035-1063) inherited Aragon. Under Alfonso VI. (1072-1109) they were all once more united. In the middle of the fifteenth century there were on the Spanish peninsula four Christian kingdoms and the Mohammedan kingdom of Granada in the south. Of these, Navarre comprised only a comparatively small district at the western extremity of the Pyrenees; to Aragon were attached the independent lands of Catalonia and Valencia. Portugal embraced the lowlands in the west, while Castile occupied the rest of Christian Spain.

Castile.—The boundaries of Castile were gradually enlarged by successive acquisitions. In 1368, a revolution, which drove Pedro the Cruel from the throne established on it the house of Trastámara. The grandson of Henry of Trastámara, Henry III., died in 1406, leaving the crown to Juan II., an infant scarcely one year old. This long minority exposed the kingdom to confusion and anarchy, and subsequently the weakness of Juan's mind rendered him only fit to be governed by others. During nearly the whole of his reign (1406-1454) Don Alvaro de Luna, Constable of Castile, possessed almost unlimited power. He had, however, to maintain a constant struggle with the Castilian *grandees*, with whom, at length, even the king himself combined against him. In 1453 he was entrapped at Burgos, and executed like a common malefactor in the public place of Valladolid (July, 1453). Juan II. soon found to his cost the value of Alvaro, and that he had no longer any check upon the insolence

of the *grandees*. He survived the constable only one year, and died in July, 1454, leaving two sons, Henry and Alfonso, the elder of whom ascended the throne. He also left a daughter by his second wife, Isabella.

Henry IV. of Castile was, if possible, still weaker than his father, and was governed as absolutely by Don Juan Pacheco as Juan II. had been by Alvaro de Luna. In 1465 he was solemnly deposed and his brother Alfonso made king. A furious civil war, which ensued, was checked by the sudden death of Alfonso (July 5, 1468). His party now proclaimed Isabella Queen of Castile; but as she steadily refused to accept that title so long as her brother Henry lived, it became necessary to effect an accommodation.

At an interview between Henry and Isabella at Toros de Guisando, in New Castile (September 9, 1468) the king solemnly recognized his sister as his successor, and the nobles tendered to her the oath of allegiance.

Aragon.—On the death of Sancho the Great of Navarre, in 1035, Aragon, like Castile, became an independent kingdom, under Sancho's younger son, Ramiro. The grandson, Alfonso I., wrested Saragossa from the Moors and made it, instead of Huesca, the capital of Aragon.

In 1137 Catalonia became united to Aragon by the marriage of the Aragonese heiress, Petronilla (daughter of Alfonso's brother, Ramiro II.), with Raymond, Count of Barcelona. This was a most important acquisition for Aragon, for the Catalans, a bold and hardy race, and excellent sailors, enabled the Aragonese monarchs to extend their dominions by sea. Under king James I. of Aragon (1213-1276) Minorca and Valencia were recovered from the Moors. His son, Pedro III., wrested Sicily from the tyrannical hands of Charles of Anjou. On his death in 1285, Don Pedro left the crown of Sicily to his second son James; and from this period Sicily formed an independent kingdom under a separate branch of the House of Aragon, down to the death of Martin the Younger in 1409. That monarch dying without legitimate children, the throne of Sicily came to his father, Martin the Elder, King of Aragon; and the two kingdoms remained henceforth united till the beginning of the eighteenth century. With the death of Martin the Elder (1410) the male branch of the House of Barcelona became extinct. His sister Eleanor had been the queen of Juan I. of Castile. Two children were born from this union, Henry and Ferdinand; Henry had become king of Castile (1390-1406), Ferdinand was in 1410 regent for his nephew, Juan II. This Ferdinand was chosen as the successor of

Martin the Elder in Aragon and Sicily. He was succeeded in 1416 by his son, Alfonso the Wise, who conquered Naples in 1435 and was acknowledged king in 1442.

On his death, in 1458, he left Naples to his natural son Ferdinand. But he declared his brother John, King of Navarre, heir to Aragon and all its dependencies (Valencia, Catalonia, Majorca, Sardinia, and Sicily). His son was that Ferdinand who, by his marriage with Isabella in 1469, paved the way for the future union of Spain.

Portugal.—About 1095 Alfonso VI., King of Castile and Leon, gave the territory between the Minho and the Douro to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, who assumed the title of Count of Portugal. His son and successor, Alfonso I., who defeated the Moors at *Ourique* in 1139, was hailed as king by his army, and later was confirmed in the title by the Pope (1185). His line continued to reign uninterruptedly in Portugal till 1383, when, on the death of King Ferdinand, John I. of Castile, who had married his daughter Beatrix and obtained from him a promise of the Portuguese succession for the issue of the marriage, claimed the throne. But the Portuguese, anxious to remain independent from Castile, declared John the Bastard, illegitimate brother of Ferdinand, to be their king; and after a civil war of two years' duration he was, with the assistance of England, established on the throne, with the title of John I., by the decisive battle of Aljubarrota (1385). This John became the founder of a dynasty which occupied the Portuguese throne till 1580.

ITALY.

Milan.—Originally an archbishopric, John Galeazzo Visconti procured, in 1396, the erection of Milan and its diocese as a duchy and imperial fief. With Philip Maria, the younger of Gian Galeazzo's two sons, ended the dynasty of the Visconti, which, as archbishops and dukes, had ruled Milan 170 years (1277–1447). As he left no legitimate children, his death occasioned four claims to the succession. These claims were:

- 1st. That of Charles of Orleans, as the son of Valentina Visconti, sister of the late duke;
- 2d. That of Bianca, Philip's illegitimate daughter, and of her husband Francesco Sforza;
- 3d. That of Alfonso, King of Naples, which rested on a testament of the deceased duke;
- 4th. That of the emperor, who, in default of heirs-male, claimed the duchy as a lapsed fief.

After three years of anarchy, Francesco Sforza seized on the supreme power (February

7, 1450), which his family continued to hold for fifty years.

Florence.—The most flourishing period of the Florentine Republic was from 1382 to 1434, during which it was under the government of the Guelfic party of the Albizzi. At this time Florence counted 150,000 inhabitants, and enjoyed a revenue of about eight hundred thousand dollars. Although its situation excluded it from that large sphere of foreign commerce enjoyed by Genoa and Venice, for it had no port of its own till it acquired Pisa by conquest and Leghorn by purchase from Genoa, it had not been entirely destitute of maritime trade, finding a harbor in the Sianese port of Telamone. In 1434 Cosmo de Medici succeeded in overthrowing the party of the Albizzi and seizing the reins of government. From this time, for three centuries, the history of Florence is connected with that of the Medici. As Cosmo's power was chiefly supported by the lower classes, he was enabled to extend it by means of his wealth, and he at length succeeded in reducing the government to a small oligarchy, having in 1452 vested the privilege of naming the Signory in only five persons. To support his own dominion he courted the friendship of Francis Sforza, the Duke of Milan.

Venice.—Her power and pretensions both by sea and land were typified in her armorial device—a lion, having two feet on the sea, a third on the plains, the fourth on the mountains. Her territorial dominions, however, were the offspring of her vast commerce and of her naval supremacy. After the Crusades and the war with Genoa, which lasted 125 years, Venice was mistress of the Mediterranean, and the trade with the East during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, but it rose to the height of its power in the first half of the fifteenth century. Then she ruled, by means of her *proveditors*, in almost every port from the extremity of the Adriatic to that of the Black Sea. In this aristocratic republic existed neither favoritism, nor caprice, nor prodigality. Theirs was truly an iron government, but which could last only by drawing closer and closer together the strings of power. If this insured prosperity in the foreign relations of the state, it dried up the sources of its internal prosperity. From 1423 to 1453 Venice had added four provinces to her territory, while her revenue had diminished by more than two hundred thousand dollars. In 1498 it acquired Cyprus by the gift of Catharine Cornaro.

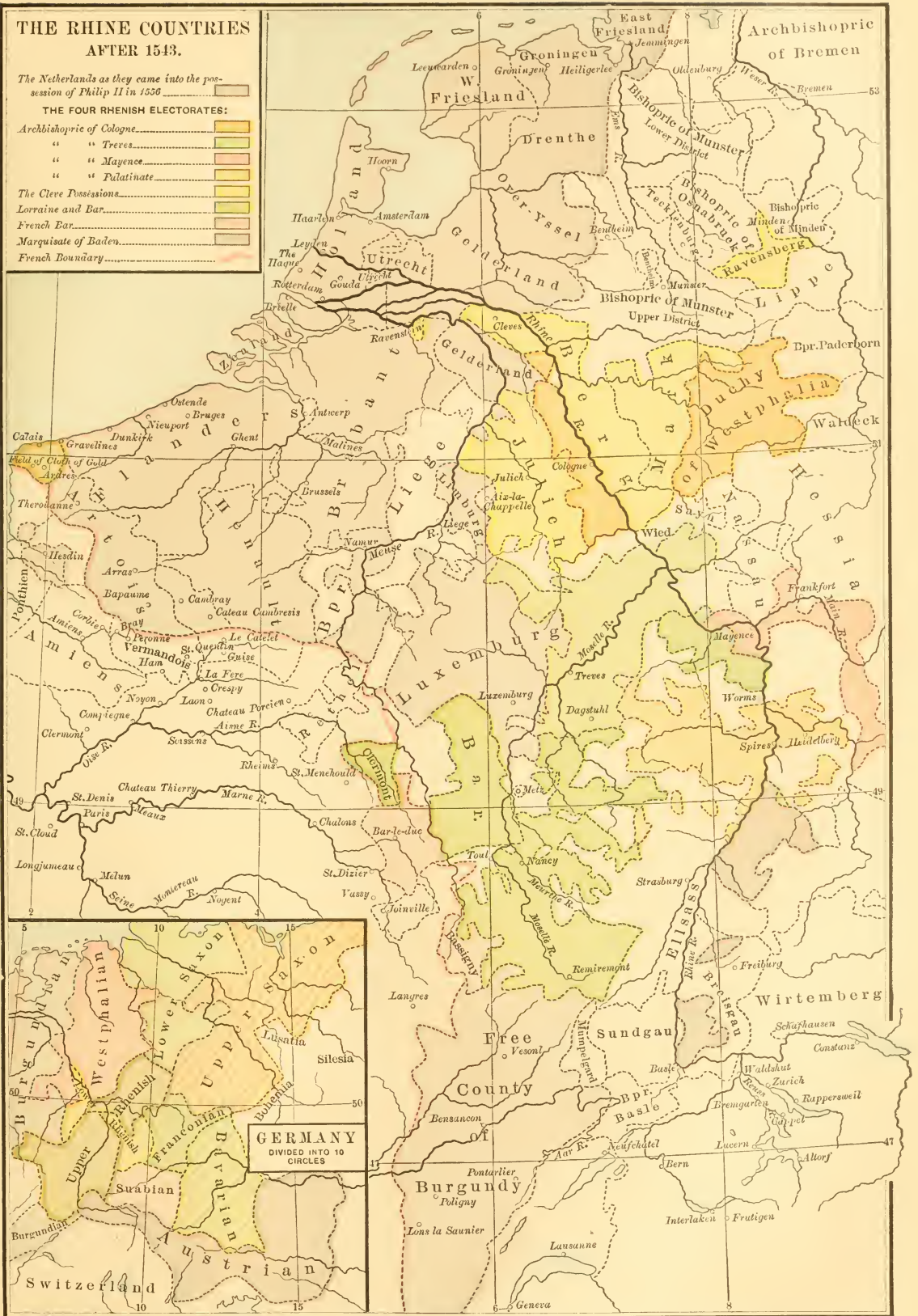
Naples.—The basis of the Kingdom of Sicily was laid by Norman adventurers in the latter part of the eleventh century. The line

THE RHINE COUNTRIES AFTER 1543.

The Netherlands as they came into the possession of Philip II in 1556

THE FOUR RHENISH ELECTORATES:

Archbishopric of Cologne.....	
" " Trier.....	
" " Mayence.....	
" " Palatinate.....	
The Cleve Possessions.....	
Lorraine and Bar.....	
French Bar.....	
Marquisate of Baden.....	
French Boundary.....	



of these Norman sovereigns ended in 1189. Constance, through her marriage with the Emperor Henry VI., brought it to the Hohenstaufen, who held the kingdom until 1265, when the pope gave it as a fief to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France. Charles' oppressive rule led to a revolt of his island subjects, and to the great massacre known as the Sicilian Vespers.

Sicily now passed to a branch of the House of Aragon, but the House of Anjou retained Naples down to the reign of Queen Joan I., who was dethroned in 1381 by Charles of Durazzo, her heir-presumptive. She had previously, however, called in from France her cousin Louis, Duke of Anjou, brother of the French king, Charles V., and his son, after the assassination of Charles of Durazzo, in Hungary, in 1385, actually ascended the Neapolitan throne with the title of Louis II.

The reign, however, of this second House of

Anjou was but short. Louis II. was driven out the same year by Ladislaus, son of Charles of Durazzo, who in spite of all the efforts of Louis, succeeded in retaining the sovereignty till his death in 1414. He was succeeded by his sister, Joan II., who, though twice married, remained childless. She first adopted Alfonso V. of Aragon and then Louis III. of Anjou. The death of Louis in 1434, followed by that of Queen Joan (February, 1435) seemed to leave the way clear for Alfonso V. But on her death-bed Queen Joan had bequeathed her crown to René, Duke of Lorraine, Louis III.'s next brother. After a fierce struggle, Alfonso gained the Neapolitan throne in 1442, which he ascended under the title of Alfonso I. On his death (1458) he left Naples to his natural son Ferdinand, but declared his brother John, King of Navarre, heir to Aragon and its dependencies.

MODERN HISTORY.

THE AGE OF THE GREAT DISCOVERIES.

GENERAL CHARACTER.

Consolidation of the Monarchies.—The great monarchies of Western Christendom had finally emerged from the feudal chaos. They had consolidated their resources and matured their strength. They stood prepared for contests on a grander scale, for the exhibition of more sustained energy, and for the realization of more systematic schemes of aggrandizement than had been witnessed since the times of the Roman Empire.

Spain swept the last relics of her old Moorish conquerors from her soil and united the sceptres of her various kingdoms under the sway of a single dynasty. France was ready to employ, in brilliant schemes of foreign conquest, those long-discordant energies and long-divided resources which Louis XI. had brought beneath the sole authority of the crown. In England and in the Burgundian lands, similar developments of matured and concentrated power had taken place.

The Great Discoveries.—While the arts which enrich and adorn nations had received in Christendom, toward the close of the fifteenth century, an almost unprecedented and unequalled impulse, the art of war had been improved there even in a higher degree. Permanent armies, comprising large bodies of well-armed and well trained infantry, were now employed. The manufacture and the use of firearms, especially of artillery, were better understood and more generally practiced, and a school of skilful as well as daring commanders had arisen, trained in the wars and on the model of the *Great Captain*, CONSALVO OF CORDOVA. All these things were of a nature calculated to waken a more far-reaching and a more enduring heroism among the Christian nations, and to make them more formidable to their Mohammedan rivals. The great maritime discoveries, the revival of classical learning, the splendid dawns of new literatures, the impulse given by the art of printing to enlightenment, discussion, and free inquiry, all tended to multiply and to elevate the leading spirits

of Christendom, to render them daring in aspiration, and patient of difficulty and of suffering in performance.

The Religious Revival.—Religious zeal had again become fervent in that age, and the advancement of the Cross was the ultimate purpose of the toils of the mariner, the philosopher, and the student, as well as of the statesman and soldier. The hope that the treasures to be derived from his voyages would serve to rescue the Holy Land from the infidels was ever present to the mind of Columbus amid his labors and his sufferings, and amid the perils of the unknown deep; even as Charles VIII., amid his marches and battle-fields between the Alps and Naples, still cherished the thought of proceeding from conquered Italy to the rescue of Constantinople from the Turks.

THE MARITIME DISCOVERIES. (Plate LVIII.)

The Unveiling of the Western Coast of Africa.—Portugal led the way among European states to conquest and colonization out of Europe. Fifty years of conquest (1415-1471) gave to Portugal her kingdom of "Algarve beyond the Sea," which led to the discovery of the whole coast of the African Continent, and to the growth of a vast Portuguese dominion in various parts of the world. The Canary Islands had been discovered in 1344. But Cape Nun (Not), which lies on the African coast opposite the Canaries, was long considered an impassable boundary, until the Portuguese succeeded in doubling it (1412) and reaching Cape Bojador. Little by little, adventurous captains coasted farther and farther, until the Cape Verde Islands were found; then the Gold Coast, the island of Fernando Po, the River Congo, and at last, in 1487, Bartolomeo Diaz doubled the Cape of Storms, the southern boundary of Africa; and as the coast beyond was ascertained to trend to the north-east, the prospect of success seemed now so clear that King John II. renamed this headland the "Cape of Good Hope." It took seventy years of exploration to trace the Afri-

can coast line of 6,000 miles from Cape Nun to the Cape of Good Hope. Most of the discoveries were due to the untiring energy of Henry the Navigator (1394-1460), fourth son of King John I. He passed the greater part of his life at Segres, near Cape St. Vincent, whence, with his eyes fixed on the southern seas, he directed the adventurous pilots who were the first to visit those unknown shores.

The Portuguese in India. (Plate LVII.)—Eleven years after Diaz (1498), Vasco de Gama arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, and returned to Portugal the next year, bringing home a rich cargo of the various products of the country. A new expedition soon followed on the heels of the first, under the orders of Alvaréz Cabral. After passing Cape Verde, steering westward, he arrived off the coast of Brazil. Having taken possession of that country for the crown of Portugal, he continued his journey to India. The ability of Cabral, and of Almeida, the first Portuguese viceroy in India, laid the foundations of a brilliant colonial empire in India, the principal founder of which, however, was the brave Albuquerque. He took, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, Ormuz, the most brilliant and polished town in Asia (1507). He made Goa the headquarters of the Portuguese establishment in India (1510). Finally his occupation of Malacca and Ceylon gave the Portuguese the dominion over the vast ocean of which the northern boundary is the Gulf of Bengal. But the conqueror died in poverty and disgrace at Goa, and with him disappeared all justice and humanity among the Portuguese.

First Journey of Columbus.—While the Portuguese were making this progress in eastern navigation, the Spaniards had made still more brilliant and striking discoveries in a new hemisphere.

Columbus (Christobal Colon, 1436-1506), conceived that something still greater might be effected. His original idea and principal purpose were to reverse the Portuguese method, and to seek a passage to India by sailing westward.

Shortly after the conquest of Granada by the Spanish sovereigns in 1492, Columbus, after many tedious years of suspense, at length succeeded in gaining for his scheme the sanction and assistance of Queen Isabella. The Spanish court, however, was poor; but Martin Pinzon, a wealthy ship-owner and experienced navigator of Palos, not only furnished one of the vessels required for the expedition, but also engaged personally, with his two brothers, to accompany it. Columbus received at length a patent from the court, and sailed on August

3, 1492, from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, with three small vessels and the empty title of admiral. From the Canaries, where he anchored, he took only thirty-three days to discover the first American island (Friday, October 12, 1492). This proved to be one of the Bahama Islands, called by the natives Guanahani. He took possession of the land in the name of Isabella, Queen of Castile and Leon, giving to the island the name San Salvador.

In his further searches he discovered the large and important islands of Cuba (which he called Juanna), and Hayti (Española, St. Domingo). The loss, however, of his largest ship, and other events, compelled Columbus to return to Europe.

Ferdinand and Isabella were greatly surprised at seeing him return, after seven months (March 15), with Americans from Hayti, as well as some of the curiosities of the country, especially gold, with which he presented them.

Subsequent Voyages.—They were readily induced by the success of the first voyage to fit out a second expedition. A fleet of seventeen ships was prepared, reckoned to carry 1,500 persons, with all the means and appliances necessary for colonizing. On this second voyage he discovered the Lesser Antilles (inhabited by *Caribs*, which Columbus misunderstood *Canibs*, whence Cannibals), and the Island of Jamaica.

On his third voyage (May, 1498, Nov., 1500), he first sighted the continent (August 1, 1498), ten degrees beyond the equator, and the coast on which was founded Carthagená (1533). The success of Columbus stimulated other navigators to emulate his voyages. One of the most eminent of those who followed in his track was Amerigo Vespucci, a learned Florentine (1451-1512) who participated in two Portuguese voyages to South America, entered the service of Castile in 1505, and filled the position of Royal Pilot from 1508 until his death, a post in which he rendered important services to science. The new world was called after him, *not* by him, America. The originator of this name was Martin Waltzemüller (Hylacomylus), from Freiburg, in the Breisgau, professor at St. Dié, in Lorraine (1507). The name of America spread at first only in Germany and Switzerland, and did not come into general use until the close of the sixteenth century.

Pre-Columbian Voyages to North America. See page 167.

NOTE.—The chief claimants for the honor of having been the first landing place of Columbus are Cat's Island, Turk's Island, Watling's Island, and Samana. The latter claim was first advanced and ably advocated by Captain G. V. Fox, in his "Attempt to Solve the Problem of the First Landing Place of Columbus in the New World." Washington, 1882. (United States Coast and Geodetic Survey.)

THE FRANCO-SPANISH STRUGGLE FOR THE SUPREMACY IN ITALY.

THE INVASION OF ITALY BY CHARLES VIII.

Milan and Naples.—When the line of the Visconti ended (1447), their tyranny was continued by Francesco Sforza, the son of a poor soldier of adventure, who had raised himself by his military genius and had married Bianca, the illegitimate daughter of the last Visconti. On his death Francesco (1465) left two sons, Galeazzo Maria and Ludovico Il Moro, both of whom were destined to play a prominent part in history. Galeazzo Maria, dissolute, vicious, and cruel to the core, was murdered by his injured subjects (1476). His son Giovanni Galeazzo, aged eight, would, in course of time, have succeeded to the duchy had it not been for the ambition of his uncle. Ludovico contrived to name himself as regent for his nephew, whom he kept, long after he had come of age, in a kind of honorable prison. Virtual master of Milan, but without a legal title to the throne, recognized in his authority by the Italian powers and holding it from day to day by craft and fraud, Ludovico at last found his situation untenable. A slight, and to all appearances insignificant incident, converted his apprehension of danger into panic. It was customary for the States of Italy to congratulate a new pope on his election by their ambassadors, and this ceremony had now (1492) to be performed for Pope Alexander VI. (Roderigo Borgia). Ludovico proposed that his envoys should go to Rome together with those of Venice, Naples, and Florence. But Piero de Medici, who had just succeeded to his father Lorenzo, contrived that Ludovico's proposal should be rejected both by Florence and the King of Naples. Ludovico, seeing in this repulse a menace to his own usurped authority, turned in his anxiety to France, and advised the young King Charles VIII. to make good his claim upon Naples. For a French invasion of Naples would tie the hands of his natural foe, the aged King Ferdinand, whose granddaughter, Isabella of Aragon, had married Giovanni Galeazzo and was now the rightful Duchess of Milan.

For Isabella, though aware of her husband's incapacity, considered herself at least entitled to rule in his place, and had frequently complained of the bondage in which she was held to her grandfather Ferdinand, who already, after remonstrating in vain with Ludovico, had threatened to interfere.

The March to Naples.—Charles VIII. was young, light-brained, romantic, and ruled

by *parvenus*, who had an interest in disturbing the old order of the monarchy. He lent a willing ear to Ludovico's invitation, backed as this was by the eloquence and passion of numerous Italian refugees and exiles. Against the advice of his more prudent counsellors, he taxed all the resources of his kingdom, and concluded treaties on disadvantageous terms with England, Germany, and Spain, in order that he might be able to concentrate all his attention upon the Italian expedition.

On March 1, 1494, Charles was with his army at Lyons. Early in September he had crossed the pass of Mount G n vre, and passing through Susa and Turin was met at Asti by Ludovico Sforza. At the approach of the French the old governments of Italy crumbled away of themselves. Pisa shook off the yoke of the Florentines, Florence that of the Medici. Savonarola received Charles VIII. as "*the Scourge of God*" sent to punish the sins of Italy. The new King of Naples, Alfonso II. (Ferdinand having died January 25, 1494) had abdicated and taken refuge in a convent in Sicily, leaving his kingdom to his son Ferdinand II., hardly twenty-five years old.

This young sovereign was abandoned by his troops at San Germano, and was forced to retire with fifteen vessels to Sicily. Charles now entered Naples (February 22, 1495) amid the acclamations of the populace. But the very facility of Charles' success was fatal to its permanence. The Italians became objects of contempt to him and his young courtiers. He alienated the hearts even of those Neapolitan nobles who had favored his cause, by depriving them of their offices. He appointed French governors to all the towns and fortresses, and thus induced several places to resume the standard of Aragon. At the end of three months the Neapolitans were tired of the French but still afraid to attack them.

The Retreat.—No sooner, however, was Charles installed in Naples than the States of Italy began to combine against him. Ludovico Sforza had availed himself of the general confusion consequent upon the first appearance of the French, to poison his nephew. He was, therefore, now the titular, as well as virtual, lord of Milan. So far, he had achieved what he desired, and had no further need of Charles. The overtures he now made to the Venetians and the pope terminated in a league between these powers for the expulsion of the French from Italy. Germany and Spain entered into the same alliance. After

a stay of only fifty days in his new capital, the French king hurried northward, leaving 11,000 men under Gilbert de Montpensier to guard Naples.

Moving quickly through the Papal States and Tuscany, he engaged his troops in the passes of the Apennines near Pontremoli, and on July 5, 1495, took up his quarters in the village of Fornovo. There he encountered the army of the Confederates, which was 40,000 strong, while the French numbered only 9,000. After in vain demanding a passage they forced one, and the enemy's army was put to flight by a few charges of cavalry (July 6th). The king then returned triumphantly to France, having justified all his imprudence by a single victory. On the day after the battle of Fornovo, the French were driven from Naples, while Ferdinand II. re-entered his capital amid the acclamations of the multitude. He died, however, soon afterward (September 7, 1496), and was succeeded without opposition by his uncle, Frederick II., a popular and able prince. Thus, before the close of 1496, all trace of Charles' rapid conquest had disappeared.

End of Charles VIII.—A remarkable change had been observed in the conduct of Charles VIII. on his return to France. He seemed a sadder but a wiser man. His expedition to Italy had inspired him with a certain degree of taste, which he displayed at the Castle of Amboise, where he took up his residence early in 1498. Here he began to build on a large scale, and employed sculptors and painters, whom he had brought with him from Naples—the first indication of the introduction of Italian art into France.

He was meditating another expedition into Italy, and being sensible of his former mistake, he resolved to take measures for assuring a permanent conquest. But he died suddenly (April 7, 1498). With Charles VIII. ended the direct line of the House of Valois, which had occupied the French throne since 1327.

THE INVASIONS OF ITALY BY LOUIS XII.

Louis XII. and France.—The crown was now transferred to the collateral branch of Orleans, and Louis, Duke of Orleans, descended from the second son of Charles V., and his consort, Valentina Visconti, of the ducal house of Milan, succeeded Charles VIII., with the title of Louis XII. The new king, feeble both in body and mind, was one of those characters to which the absence of strong passions and opinions lends the appearance of good nature, and even of virtue. He was naturally formed to be governed, and with him ascended

the throne a prelate who had long been his director, George d'Amboise, Archbishop of Rouen. The views of both were directed toward Italy. The king's heart was set on the conquest of Milan and the recovery of Naples, the Archbishop wanted to be pope, and his best chance of attaining that dignity lay in the success of his master's project. But for this success it was absolutely necessary that France should be contented and quiet; and the domestic government of Louis XII. was accordingly mild and equitable.

The higher classes were propitiated by favors, the middle classes were conciliated by some useful reforms in the administration of justice, and the whole nation was kept loyal by a government founded on order and economy.

The Second Invasion of Italy.—As soon as his marriage with Anne of Brittany, widow of Charles VIII. (January 7, 1499), had secured for him the possession of that duchy, Louis invaded the Milanese in concert with the Venetians. Both the hostile armies were partly composed of Swiss. Those who belonged to the troops of Milan would not fight against the flag of their canton, which they saw in the army of the King of France, and abandoned Ludovico Il Moro at Novara (April 5, 1500). But on their way back to their mountains they took possession of Bellinzona, which Louis XII. was obliged to give up to them, and it became in their hands the *key of Lombardy*.

Ludovico, taken prisoner, was carried into France. Louis XII. caused him to be confined in the great tower of Loches, where he was shut up in an iron cage eight feet long and six broad. It was only toward the close of his life, which was prolonged ten years, that the hardship of his captivity was mitigated, and the whole castle laid open to him.

Thus ended miserably Ludovico Il Moro, one of the ablest rulers of his time. Milan, in his hands, had become the city which it is at present, and it was he who completed the admirable network of Milanese irrigation, by making the gigantic canal which connects its rivers. Leonardo da Vinci, the loftiest and most universal genius of his age, chose Ludovico for his master, and quitted Florence to live at Milan.

Louis XII. and Ferdinand the Catholic.—Having subdued Milan, Louis XII., who could not hope to conquer the Kingdom of Naples against the will of Ferdinand the Catholic, shared it with him by means of a secret treaty (Treaty of Granada, November 11, 1500). Naples, the Terra di Lavoro, and the Abruzzi were assigned to Louis, with the

title of King of Naples and Jerusalem, while Ferdinand was to have Calabria and Apulia, with the title of Duke. King Frederick II. of Naples, alarmed at the French preparations, had called Ferdinand the Catholic to his assistance, and when he had opened his principal fortresses to Consalvo de Cordova the treaty of partition was disclosed to him (1501). Frederick, disgusted with Ferdinand's traitorous conduct, surrendered himself to Louis XII., and in October, 1501, sailed for France, where he died in exile in 1504.

This odious conquest of the Neapolitan kingdom was productive only of war. The two nations (French and Spaniards) quarrelled for the proceeds of the tax raised on the herds that travelled in the spring from Apulia to the Abruzzi, which was the most certain portion of the Neapolitan revenue. Ferdinand amused Louis XII. by a treaty until he had sent sufficient reinforcements to Consalvo, who was blockaded in Barletta.

Consalvo (leaving Barletta) suddenly resumed the offensive with extraordinary vigor and rapidity, and within a week two decisive battles were fought. On April 21, 1503, the Spanish Captain Andrades defeated Stuart d'Aubigny at Seminara, in Calabria, and compelled him to retire into the fortress of Angitola, where he soon afterward surrendered. On April 28th, the *Great Captain* (Consalvo) himself defeated the Duke of Nemours at Cerignola, near Barletta, when the French army was almost destroyed. Most of the Neapolitan towns, including the capital, opened their gates to the conqueror (May 14th). By the end of July, 1503, the French had completely evacuated the Neapolitan territory, which thus fell into Ferdinand's possession.

Louis XII. and Pope Julius II.—Louis XII., however, was still master of a large portion of Italy; sovereign of the Milanese, and lord of Genoa, the ally and mainstay of Florence and of Pope Alexander VI., his influence spread over Tuscany, the Romagna, and the Roman States. But the death of Alexander VI. (August 18, 1503), and the ruin of his son were as fatal to him as the defeat at Cerignola.

The place vacated by Alexander VI. was soon occupied by the patriotic Julius II. (1503–1513), who wished to make the Papal States the dominating realm of Italy, to deliver the whole peninsula from the *barbarians* (French and Spaniards), and to make the Swiss the guardians of Italian liberty.

Employing spiritual and temporal arms by turns, the intrepid pontiff spent his life in the execution of these inconsistent projects; for the *barbarians* could be driven out only by means of

Venice, and Venice had to be lowered to raise the Church to the rank of the preponderating power in Italy. For the latter purpose the *League of Cambray* was formed (December 10, 1508). The object of this *League*, which was the first great combination since the time of the Crusades, of several leading European powers for a common object, is clearly stated in the preamble of the treaty itself. The preamble states that the Emperor (Maximilian) and the King of France having, at the solicitation of Pope Julius II., allied themselves in order to *make war on the Turks*, had first resolved to put an end to the rapine, losses, and injuries caused by the Venetians, not only to the Holy Apostolic See, but also to the Holy Roman Empire, and many other princes; and to extinguish, as a common devouring fire, the insatiable cupidity and thirst of domination of the Venetians. In the spring of 1509 Louis XII. declared war against Venice, and in April he crossed the Alps. He had crossed the Adda and was marching along its banks, when at a bend of the river he suddenly found himself in presence of the Venetian army. A battle ensued (Agnadello, May 14, 1509), in which the Venetian army was annihilated. This victory enabled Louis to take possession of all the territory assigned him by the Treaty of Cambray, namely, as far as the River Mincio. He therefore halted his victorious army and left the emperor to achieve his part by reducing the places east of that boundary. The emperor, however, was less successful. The Venetians beat the Marquis of Mantua, retook Padua, and defended it against the emperor, who laid siege to it with 40,000 men (September, 1409). The King of Naples and the pope, whose pretensions were satisfied, made peace with Venice, and Julius II., who was now only bent upon driving out the *barbarians* from Italy, turned his impetuous policy against the French.

The projects of the pope were only too well served by the ill-conceived economy of Louis XII., which had alienated the Swiss. They now entered into an alliance with the pope, engaging not to form any connection that might be hurtful to Rome, and to oppose all the pope's enemies.

A HOLY LEAGUE was now formed (October 4, 1511) by the pope, Ferdinand the Catholic, and the Venetians. Its professed object was the protection of the Church, but its real aim was the expulsion of the French from Italy. There were two other parties to this *League*, who, for the present, remained in the background: the Emperor Maximilian and Henry VIII. of England. The army of the *Holy League* was to be commanded by Don Raymond de Car-

dona, Viceroy of Naples, a man of polished and agreeable manners, but of no military experience, whom the rough old pope nicknamed *Lady Cardona*. The French were commanded by the Viceroy of Milan, Gaston de Foix, the "*thunderbolt of war*." In a short career of two months, this Gaston revealed to France the true secret of its military power—the capacity of its infantry to perform marches of extraordinary rapidity. First he intimidated or gained over the Swiss and drove them back into their mountains, then he raised the siege of Bologna, and penetrated into the town with his army, favored by a violent snowstorm (February 7, 1512). On February 18th he was before Brescia, which had been retaken by the Venetians, and on the 19th he had carried the town, which was abandoned for seven days to the fury of the soldiers. Gaston, on his return to the Romagna, attacked Ravenna, to force the army of Spain and the pope to give battle (April 11th). The Spanish infantry, after sustaining the day with obstinate courage, slowly retired.

Gaston, maddened at the carnage which they had made, and forgetting his duty as general, charged them at the head of a few men-at-arms, when he was struck from his horse by a Spanish soldier. In vain his cousin Lautrec exclaimed: "*Spare his life, it is our Viceroy, your Queen's brother!*" Gaston fell, pierced with twenty wounds, and Lautrec shared the same fate.

His victory was indeed complete, but it was more than counterbalanced by his death.

At the end of June, 1512, less than three months after the victory at Ravenna, Louis XII. held in the Milanese little more than Brescia, Peschiera, and Crema, while Maximilian Sforza, eldest son of Ludovico II Moro, was restored to the ducal throne of Milan.

Pope Julius II. survived his triumph over the French but a few months. He died February 21, 1513. He must be regarded as the founder of the Papal States. His idea of making the papacy the instrument of Italian liberation was a grand one, and made him worthy of imperishable glory. As a ruler all his ideas were on a gigantic scale. He resumed the building of St. Peter's, in which, and other architectural designs, he found in Michael Angelo a genius of kindred vastness to assist him. He was succeeded in the papacy by Leo X. (till 1521).

Close of the Reign of Louis XII.—Henceforth nothing succeeded with Louis XII. The Sforzas remained in Milan, the Medici returned to Florence. The king's army was beaten by the Swiss at Novara (June 6, 1513), and by the English at Guinegate (August 17, 1513), known as the Battle of the Spurs, be-

cause the French used their spurs more than their swords. France, attacked in front by the Spaniards and the Swiss, in the rear by the English, saw her two allies, Scotland and Navarre, beaten (at Flodden Field) or despoiled. The war had no longer an object. Louis XII. concluded a truce with Ferdinand at Orthez (April 1, 1513), by which he sacrificed his ally Jean d'Albert, King of Navarre, whose dominions were now reduced to the little territory of Bearn. But he still retained the royal title of Navarre. In the following year Henry VIII. of England, deserted by his allies, made peace with France (August 7, 1514). Louis agreed to pay Henry a million of crowns and to marry Mary, Henry's sister. Three months after the marriage, January 1, 1515, Louis died; his young widow afterward became the wife of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk.

THE INVASIONS OF ITALY BY FRANCIS I.

Marignano.—While Europe believed France to be exhausted, and as it were to have grown old with Louis XII., she suddenly displayed unexpected resources under the young Francis I. This Francis had received from nature all the gifts that can adorn a man: he was handsome and tall and strong; his armor, preserved in the Louvre, is that of a man six feet high; his eyes were brilliant and soft, his smile was gracious, his manners were winning. He was the son of Louis XII.'s first cousin, Charles d'Angoulême, and husband of his daughter, Claude. The Italian claims of Louis XII., derived from his grandmother, Valentina Visconti, also descended in due order, upon her great-grandson, Francis I., who after the death of his father-in-law, assumed the title of Duke of Milan, and determined to carry out Louis' projected enterprise upon that duchy. The Swiss, who thought that they held all the passes of the Alps, heard with astonishment that the French army had defiled through the valley of the Argentiére. They advanced as far as Marignano, negotiating as they marched. There the Swiss, whom they thought they had won over, fell upon the French and succeeded in separating the divisions of the royal army; but during the night the French rallied, and the battle recommenced at daybreak more furiously than ever. At length the Swiss heard the war-cry of the Venetians, who were allies of France—*Marco! Marco!* Believing that the whole of the Italian army was coming, they closed their ranks and fell back with such an air of defiance that the enemy durst not pursue them, leaving only 1,500 men to hold the citadel of Milan for Sforza. When

this was taken (October 4th) Sforza abdicated the duchy in favor of Francis I. He retired into France, where a pension of 30,000 crowns was assigned to him. He died at Paris in 1530.

The Constable of Bourbon.—No one had more contributed to the victory of Marignano than Charles, the Constable of Bourbon, Count of Montpensier, and Dauphin of Auvergne, who held, by virtue of his wife Susanne, a granddaughter of Louis XI., the duchy of Bourbon, and the counties of Clermont, La Marche, and many other domains. He was not only the richest lord in Christendom, but cherished even the hope of succeeding to the French crown in case of the failure of heirs to Francis I. His services at the Battle of Marignano had been so important that Francis rewarded him with the government of the Milanese. Cold, haughty, and taciturn, Bourbon's temper was the very reverse of that of Francis, who never trusted him entirely, and soon removed him from the government of Milan. From this time the king seems to have studiously heaped both insults and injuries on Bourbon. On the death of his wife (April 28, 1521) the Queen-mother, Louise of Savoy, who had wanted to marry the constable and had been refused by him, resolved to ruin him. She disputed with him his rich inheritance. As daughter of Margaret, sister of Duke Peter II. of Bourbon, she represented the eldest branch of the Bourbons, but through the female line. She obtained permission from her son, King Francis, that the property should be provisionally sequestered. The constable, exasperated, resolved to pass over to the emperor (1523).

Pavia.—Since 1521 there was war between Charles V. and Francis I. Charles had advanced claims to Milan and the Duchy of Burgundy. Francis claimed Spanish Navarre and Naples. The French had been driven in 1522 from Milan, which was then governed by Francesco Sforza (brother of the exiled Maximilian). While Francis was preparing to cross into Italy, Bourbon promised Charles V. to attack Burgundy as soon as the king had crossed the Alps, and to rouse into revolt five provinces of which he believed himself master. He was to be rewarded with the hand of the emperor's sister Eleanor, and the kingdom of Provence was to be re-established in his favor. France, partitioned between Spain and England, would have ceased to exist as a nation. But the conspiracy was discovered before Francis had crossed the Alps, and the constable was obliged to flee to Germany, whence he passed through Tyrol to Mantua, whose marquis was his first cousin. Instead of five

or six provinces and a great party, Bourbon could now offer Charles only his talents, his valor, and his despair. He soon perceived that the ardor of friendship was gradually succeeded, in the conduct of the emperor, by the coldness of protection, and he felt that he could not press for the completion of the treaty and the hand of Eleanor till he had achieved something that might deserve it. On January 16, 1524, he was declared a traitor by Francis; his lands were confiscated, and the coat of arms upon his palace wall was besmeared with saffron in token of his disgrace.

In the spring of 1524 Bourbon, with the title of Lieutenant-General of the Emperor in Italy, joined the imperial army at Milan, and in June he led 18,000 men by the Corniche Road into Provence. He had thought that on his first appearance in France his vassals would flock to serve with him under the foreign standard. But not one came. The imperialists were driven back from the walls of Marseilles, and they saved their exhausted army only by a retreat which resembled a flight. Instead of overpowering them in Provence the king chose to anticipate them in Italy.

In spite of the approaching winter Francis resolved to cross the Alps, and sat down before Pavia, the siege of which was obstinately maintained, the French army being strongly posted in a fortified camp in the park of Mirabella, on the west bank of the Ticino. Here they were attacked by the Imperialists under Bourbon and Pescara. The French army was completely annihilated, the Swiss fled, the lance-knights were crushed. Francis defended himself on foot; his horse had been killed under him; his armor, which is still in existence, was riddled by balls and thrusts of pikes. Happily one of the French nobles who had followed Bourbon caught sight of him and saved him; but he would not yield to a traitor; he called the Viceroy of Naples, who received his sword on his knees. The celebrated laconic letter to his mother, "*Madam! all is lost but honor,*" is a literary invention. Francis by no means possessed so pregnant a style.

On June 8, 1525, Francis sailed from Genoa, was landed at Alicante, and thence transferred to the fortress of Jativa (both in Valencia). Early in August he was brought to Madrid.

The Sack of Rome.—Francis I. arrived in Spain, believing, from the movements of his own heart, that it would be enough for him to meet his *Good Brother* to be sent back honorably to his kingdom. Such was not the case. His captivity was of the most rigorous kind, which threw him into a dangerous sickness.

It was only then, when Charles V. feared to lose his prisoner through death, and Francis I. had abdicated in favor of the Dauphin, that the emperor made up his mind to release him, after forcing him to sign a shameful treaty (January 14, 1526).

The King of France renounced his pretensions in Italy, promised to acknowledge the rights of Bourbon, to give up Burgundy, to yield his two sons as hostages, and to ally himself by a double marriage to the family of Charles V. This treaty was never meant to be executed. Once more king it was easy for him to elude it. Francis caused the States of Burgundy to declare that he had no right to give up any portion of the French territory, and formed a league (League of Cognac) against the emperor, with the pope, the Venetians, and Sforza (May 22, 1526).

Henry VIII. of England did not indeed join the league, but he did all in his power to forward it, and promised money. The Italians were in general enthusiastic in favor of this league. A confidant of Pope Clement VII. wrote to a friend: "It is not a war that concerns a point of honor, a petty vengeance, or the preservation of a single city, but the deliverance or the eternal slavery of all Italy."

The last Struggle for the Possession of Italy.—Although the Italian confederates were at first unsupported either by French troops or English gold, yet had they possessed an enterprising general they might easily have mastered the imperial army of 11,000 men while their own army was more than double. While the pope, the head of the league, was meditating the liberation of Italy, he was unexpectedly made a prisoner by one of his own cardinals, Pompeo Colonna, and only released by the Spanish commander, Hugo de Moncada, who dictated to him a truce for four months. The greater part of Italy continued a prey to the most hideous war that ever disfigured humanity. It was less a war than a long torture inflicted by a ferocious soldiery on an unarmed people. When the condition of affairs in Italy became known to the Germans, 14,000 of their mercenaries crossed the Alps under George Frundsberg, a furious Lutheran, who wore around his neck a gold chain, with which, he said, he intended to strangle the pope. Bourbon led, or rather followed this army of robbers. Clement VII. dismissed his best troops on the approach of these bands, fancying perhaps that Rome unarmed would inspire them with respect. On the morning of May 6, 1527, Bourbon commenced the assault. Perceiving that his German infantry supported him feebly, he seized a ladder, and was scaling it, when a ball struck him in the back.

Feeling that it was his death-blow, he ordered his men to cover his body with his cloak and thus conceal his fall. His soldiers avenged him only too amply. More than seven thousand Romans were massacred on the first day. Nothing was spared, neither convents, nor churches, nor even St. Peter's itself. The booty was immense. For centuries the wealth of Europe had been flowing toward Rome, and it now became the prey of that brutal and needy soldiery which, in expectation of this hour, had so long borne with privations and misery.

The Peace of Cambray.—Indignation reached its height in Europe when the sack of Rome and the captivity of the pope became known. Charles V. ordered prayers for the deliverance of the pope, who was more the prisoner of the imperial army than of the emperor. Francis I. thought the moment favorable for despatching to Italy the troops which a few months earlier would have saved Rome and Milan. Lautrec marched upon Naples, while the imperial generals negotiated with their troops to induce them to leave Rome. But Lautrec, as in the first wars, was not supplied with money. Pestilence consumed his army. However, nothing was lost as long as the communication by sea with France was preserved. But this was lost when Francis had the imprudence to displease his admiral, Doria, the Genoese, whose engagement with France had just expired. He passed over with his fleet to the emperor, on condition that his country should be independent and once more rule over Liguria.

In consequence of the defection of Doria, the French army, which had been almost exterminated by pestilence, could not be re-enforced, and Naples was lost forever to France.

Both parties, however, wished for peace. Charles V. was alarmed by the progress of the ecclesiastical troubles and the invasion of the terrible Soliman, who sat down before Vienna. Francis I. exhausted, sought only to secure his own interests at the expense of his allies. He wanted to get back his children and to retain Burgundy. In 1529 a peace (called the Ladies' Peace, because it was negotiated by Louisa of Savoy, mother of Francis, and Margaret of Austria, aunt of Charles) was concluded at Cambray. Francis was released from his obligation to surrender Burgundy, and on the other hand renounced all his pretensions in Italy. Francis abandoned all his allies, while Charles did not desert a single one, and obtained a pardon for the constable's family and adherents.

Thus were virtually terminated the wars between the French and the Spaniards for the possession of Italy. After a struggle of over

thirty-six years, Italy had become in reality, if not in name, a Spanish province, and the Spanish ascendancy in Europe was secured. The great result of the Spanish conquest of Italy was that, when soon after the Church was reformed, the reformation was carried out in the Spanish spirit, and Spain became not only the temporal but the spiritual master of Western Europe.

THE FIRST TUDORS IN ENGLAND.

Henry VII.—The reign of Henry VII. gave to the English middle classes what they most needed, the protection of a firm government. But he roused great indignation by the extortionate injustice which has ever since been connected with the names of his ministers, Empson and Dudley. Since little confidence could be placed in the future after so many revolutions, the first care of Henry VII. was to accumulate a treasure. Exaction of feudal dues, redemption of feudal services, fines, confiscations, every means seemed good to him for attaining his ends. He obtained money from his parliament to make war in France, he obtained subsidies from France not to make it, and thus *gained from his subjects by war* and from his enemies by peace. He endeavored also to support himself by alliances with more firmly established dynasties: he gave his daughter Margaretha to James IV. of Scotland, and obtained the hand of Catharina of Aragon for his son Arthur. In his reign navigation and manufactures made their first great start. It was he who equipped the Venetian, John Cabot, who discovered the coast of North America in 1497.

Henry VIII.—To the father, who had won the crown on the battle-field, and who had maintained it as his own in the extremest dangers, succeeded a son full of life and energy. Henry VIII., too, felt the need of being popular, like most princes on their accession; he sacrificed the two chiefs of the fiscal commission, Empson and Dudley, to the universal hate. Without delay he married his brother's widow. In the ceremonies of her husband's coronation Catharine could actually take part as queen. He was at that time an ardent Catholic, wrote against the heretics, and was always ready to take up arms to protect the pope, who constituted him the arbiter of the disputes arising out of the League of Cambray; and at Easter, 1510, Julius sent him the *golden rose*, which the Roman court annually presents to the sovereign on whose assistance it most relies.

When Louis XII. and Emperor Maximilian tried to oppose a council to the pope, Henry

VIII. dissuaded the latter from it with a zeal full of unction. He drew him over, in fact, to his side; they undertook a combined campaign against France, in which they won a battle in the open field (*Guinegate*, August 17, 1513) and conquered a great city (Tournay). Aided by the English army, Ferdinand the Catholic then possessed himself of Navarre, which was given up to him by the pope, as being taken when it was in league with an enemy of the Church. Louis' other ally, the Scotch King James IV., succumbed to England at Flodden (September 9, 1513), and Henry might have raised a claim to Scotland like that of Ferdinand to Navarre, but he preferred, as his sister Margaret became regent there, to strengthen the indirect influence of England over Scotland.

The young king was especially guided by a young ecclesiastic, Thomas Wolsey, who since 1510 had a seat in the council. He co-operated in the revival of classical studies, which were just coming into notice at Oxford; he had a feeling for the efforts of art, which was then attaining a higher estimation, and an inborn talent for architecture, to which England owes some wonderful works (Cardinal's College, now Christ Church, Oxford; the School at Ipswich, and Hampton Court).

The king, too, loved building; the present of a skilfully cut jewel could delight him; and he sought honor in defending the scholastic dogmas against Luther's views; in all this Wolsey seconded and supported him. Henry VIII. first felt himself to be really *king* when business was managed by a favorite thoroughly dependent on him, trusted by him, and in fact very capable. The king named him *Archbishop of York* (1514), the pope *Cardinal Legate* (1517), so that the whole control of ecclesiastical matters fell into his hands; foreign affairs were peculiarly his own department.

But having displeased the king in the matter of the divorce of Catharine of Aragon, he was (1529) deprived of all his dignities, and he died a broken-spirited man (1530).

This divorce suit brought about the separation of Henry VIII. from the Catholic Church. He threw off the authority of the pope simply because he was tired of a staid and elderly wife (Catharine of Aragon) and had fallen in love with a flighty young woman (Anne Boleyn). But the moment the thing was done he justified his acts to himself in reforming the Church according to the ideas of the better men around him. There was to be no change in the doctrine preached, but there was to be a change in the habits of those by whom it was preached. By placing himself at the head of such a work Henry ren-

dered himself more despotic than he had been before : he became to be regarded as the impersonation of the commonwealth, and never was there man more representative of a people than was Henry VIII. of the England of his day. In him met the brutal passions of his subjects, with their dogged persistency,

their love of show and splendor, their intellectual, moral, and religious tendencies. Low and high, coarse and cultured, mocking and serious, he had a side for all. He could speak to each rank and to each character in the name of England, because all England was in himself.

THE SPANISH ASCENDENCY IN WESTERN EUROPE.

Plate XLII.

THE AGE OF CHARLES V.

Consolidation of Spain.—On January 2, 1492, Granada, then deemed the largest fortified city in the world, and the capital of the remnant of the Moslem possessions in Spain, surrendered to their Catholic Majesties, Ferdinand and Isabella. Thus fell the Moslem rule in Spain, after it had lasted nearly seven centuries and a half. The tidings of the capture of Granada were received throughout Europe, and especially at Rome, with joy and thanksgiving, for the event was regarded as in some degree compensating for the occupation of Constantinople by the Turks. By the conquest of Granada the whole of Spain, with the exception of Navarre, was consolidated into one great kingdom, and was thus prepared to take a leading part in those political affairs which were soon to engage the attention of Europe ; while the long wars by which the conquest had been achieved had served as a training-school for that redoubtable infantry and those famous captains who, for a considerable period, rendered Spain the first military power in the world.

Ancestry of Charles V.—During the sixteenth century Spain was the leading power in Europe. It was an ascendancy which had been gained by unquestioned superiority in all the arts of policy and of war. Spanish diplomacy and Spanish arms absolutely controlled the greater part of Western Europe. This union of the fairest portions of Europe, under the overlordship of Spain, had been brought about by a long series of prudent marriages.

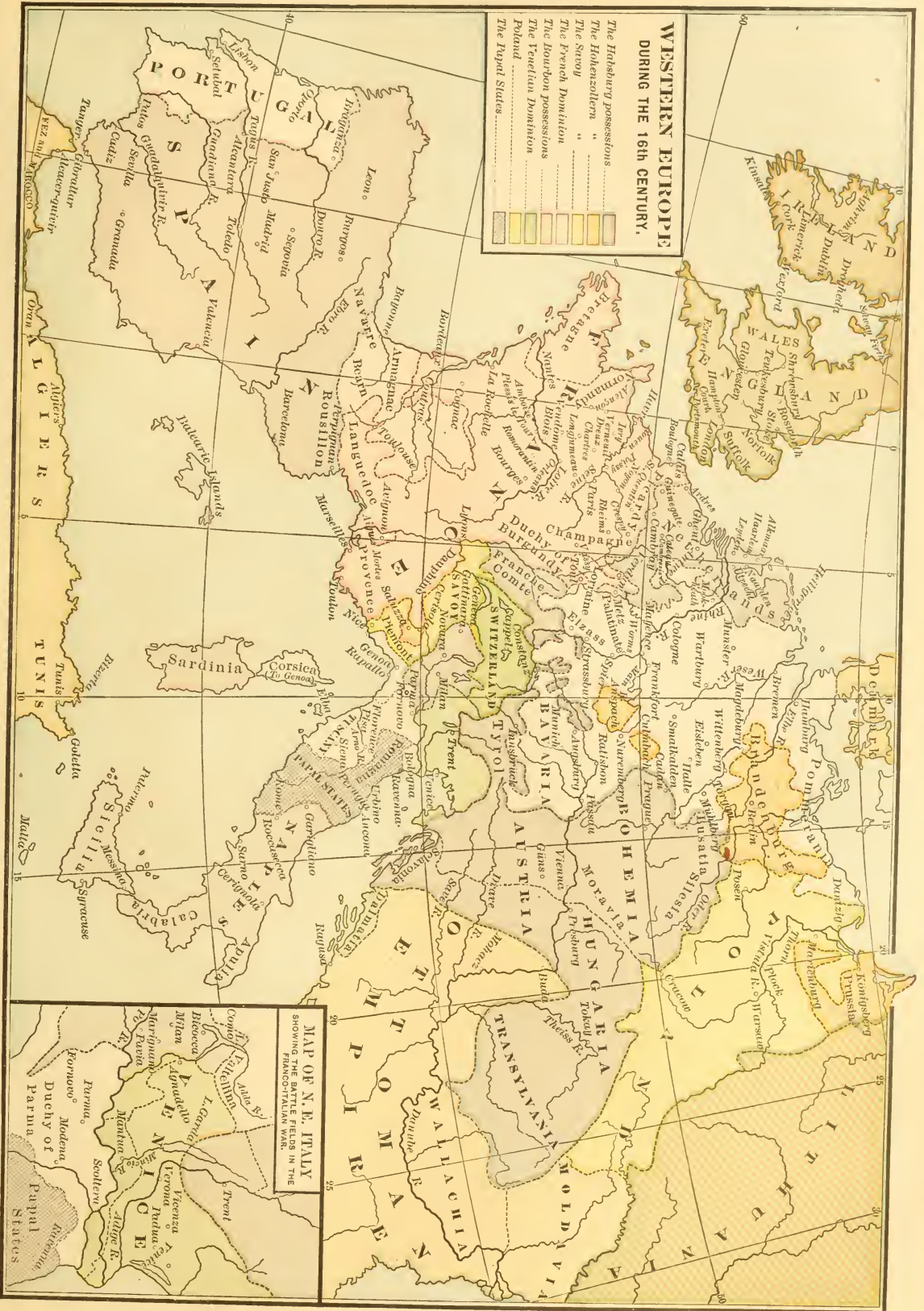
Mary, only daughter of Charles the Bold, and heiress of the wealthy Netherlands, and the Counties of Burgundy and Charolais, had married Maximilian, the heir of all the Habsburg possessions. Their only son, Philip, married Joanna, daughter of Ferdinand (King of Aragon and Naples) and Isabella (Queen of Castile), hence heiress of the three king-

doms and the American colonies. All these lands descended to Charles of Habsburg, the eldest son of Philip and Joanna.

Imperial Election of 1519.—When the empire became vacant by the death of Maximilian I. (1519), and the kings of France, Spain, and England demanded the imperial crown, the electors, fearing to impose on themselves a master, offered it to one of their own body—Frederick the Wise, Elector of Saxony. This prince, however, showed himself worthy of his name, by inducing them to choose Charles of Habsburg. Of the three candidates, Charles was the most dangerous for German freedom, but he also was the most capable of defending Germany against the Turks. Selim and Soliman revived at that time the fear which had been experienced by Europe in the days of Mohammed II. The ruler of Spain, Naples, and Austria could alone close the civilized world against the barbarians of Africa and Asia.

With their candidature for the imperial crown, burst forth the inextinguishable rivalry between Francis I. and Charles V., who now followed up the Burgundian policy of Charles the Bold, systematically to weaken France. He drove her from Italy, seized on Milan, in addition to Naples, and this in conjunction with Pope Clement VII., who needed the good-will of the emperor to assist him to repress the rising doctrines of Luther.

The Rise of Luther.—Martin Luther, an Augustine monk, and since 1508 professor at Wittenberg, had nailed upon the door of the Court Church of Wittenberg (October 31, 1517), his ninety-five theses against the misuse of indulgences. Summoned (1518) to Augsburg by Cardinal de Vio, of Gaëta (hence usually called *Cajetan*), Luther could not be induced to abjure, but appealed to the pope, who sent his chamberlain, Von Miltitz, to mediate. The result was the condemnation by Rome of forty-one articles in Luther's writings. Luther burned (1520) the papal bull and the



canon law, and consequently was excommunicated. Summoned by the emperor to the Diet of Worms, he defended his doctrines before the emperor. The ban of the empire being pronounced against him, he was carried to the Wartburg by the Elector of Saxony, and there protected. The Diet of Worms came to an end without having accomplished the work which Germany expected from it. No decisive steps had been taken to remedy the ecclesiastical grievances of which the princes complained. The grievances of the much enduring peasantry had not even been talked of. The friends of ecclesiastical reform as well as the peasants thought there was nothing left but revolution.

The Peasants' War.—The oppressive cruelty of the nobles, and the misinterpretation of Luther's doctrines concerning Christian liberty, occasioned the Peasants' War, which broke out in Suabia, in 1525, and spread rapid destruction over the Rhineland and Franconia as far as Saxony and Thuringia. The struggle extended finally into Styria and Carinthia, where there had been risings before, and lingered longest in the Tyrol.

The failure of the peasants was inevitable, and the wild vigor with which they acted in the moments of their brief power did but add to the cruelty with which they were crushed and punished when the tide of victory turned against them. More than 100,000 peasants perished.

Luther, throughout the Peasants' War, which had grown up from the dragon's teeth that he himself had sown, sided with the ruling powers. He was firm as a rock in opposing the use of the sword against the civil power. For the reform *he* sought was by means of the civil power. His reformation was intended to be far more political than spiritual. In order to make himself and his cause *solid* with the princes, he publicly exhorted them to *crush* the rebellion.

The poor peasants had thought that in Luther (himself a peasant) they should have found a friend, but they were bitterly disappointed. He hounded on the princes in their work of blood. Thanks to this attitude of Luther, the spread of the Reformation was not checked by the Peasants' War. It was also favored by the fact that the emperor, after the Diet of Worms, had left Germany and was occupied with the war with Francis I. But after the Peace of Cambray the victorious emperor took a more decided position. The strict execution of the decree of the Diet of Worms, which had prohibited the promulgation of all new doctrines, was resolved upon. The Lutheran princes, in the *Second Diet at Speier*, protested against this resolution, whence they were called PROTESTANTS.

The Smalkaldic League.—The followers of Luther wished to be distinguished by that name from all the other enemies of Rome whose excesses would have damaged their cause: from the republican Zwinglians of Switzerland, odious both to princes and nobles; and above all from the Anabaptists, proscribed as enemies of order and society. Their confession, softened by the learned and conciliatory Melancthon, was nevertheless rejected as heretical. They were summoned to renounce their errors on pain of being placed under the ban of the empire (Augsburg, 1530). Charles V. seemed even ready to use violence, and for a short time ordered the gates of Augsburg to be closed. The diet had scarcely been dissolved, when the Protestant princes assembled at Smalkalden and there concluded a defensive league, by which they were to form a state within the state (1531). They settled their contingents, they applied to the kings of France, England, and Denmark, and they held themselves ready for battle.

Protestantism Saved by the Turks.—The Turks seemed charged with the task of again bringing the Germans together. The emperor heard that Soliman had just entered Hungary at the head of 300,000 men, while the pirate Chairedin (*Barbarossa*) was keeping the whole of the Mediterranean in alarm. Charles V. hastened to offer to the Protestants to grant all their demands, especially the *preservation of the secularized possessions of the Church*, until the approaching council (Religious Peace of Nuremberg, 1532).

Greatness of Charles V.—The emperor hurried eastward to prevent Soliman from penetrating into Europe through the Styrian passes. The formidable aspect of the imperial army decided the sultan on retiring, who was not reassured until, leaving the narrow gorges of the Murr and the Drave, he re-entered the plain of Waradein. Charles now reigned over almost the whole of Western Europe, and guided at his will the policy and resources of his brother Ferdinand in Eastern Europe, who ruled, since 1526, over the wide lands of Bohemia, Hungary, and Austria.

In the far west his soldiers conquered boundless realms (Mexico, Peru), and it seemed as if he intended to revive the spirit of the Crusades when, in 1535, he took Tunis by assault and restored to freedom 20,000 Christian slaves. They were brought back to their homes at the expense of the emperor, and caused the name of Charles V. to be blessed throughout Europe.

Smalkaldic War.—When the long wars with Turks and French (inseparable allies) had been finally brought to an end by the *Peace of*

Crespy (1544) Charles used all his energy to crush the independence of the estates of the empire in Germany, and to restore the unity of the Church, to which he was urged by Pope Paul III., who concluded an alliance with him, and promised money and troops. The Protestants, warned by the pope's imprudence, who proclaimed the war as a crusade, rose up under the Elector of Saxony and the Landgrave of Hessa to the number of 80,000. Abandoned by France, England, and Denmark, who had excited them to war, they would have been, nevertheless, sufficiently strong, if they had remained united, but while they were pressing hard Charles V., who lay intrenched behind the walls of Ingolstadt, young Maurice, Duke of Saxony who had secretly been treating with him, betrayed the Protestant cause and invaded the states of his relative the elector. Charles V. had simply to overpower the scattered members of the league. As soon as the deaths of Henry VIII. (January 28, 1547), and of Francis I. (March 31, 1547), had deprived the Protestants of all hope of assistance, he marched against the elector of Saxony, and defeated him at Mülberg (April 24, 1547).

Maurice of Saxony and Charles V.—While Maurice, who had been rewarded for his treason by the electorate, found himself the plaything of the emperor, he was stung to the quick by the circulation of numbers of broad-sheets, in which he was called apostate and traitor. He wanted to redeem his first treason by a second. He concealed his plans with profound dissimulation. He raised an army without alarming the emperor. At the same time he treated secretly with the king of France.

The emperor received simultaneously two manifestoes, one from Maurice, in the name of Germany, the other from Henry II. of France, who called himself the Protector of the Princes of the Empire, and who headed his manifesto with a cap of liberty between two daggers.

While the French invaded Germany and took possession of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, Maurice advanced by long marches on Innspruck (1552). Charles V., ill, and without troops, set out at night in pouring rain, and had himself carried toward the mountains of Carinthia. If Maurice had not been stopped by a mutiny, the emperor would have fallen into his hands. He was forced, however, to submit. The emperor concluded with the Protestants the truce of Passau, and the ill success of the war which he sustained against France changed this truce into a definitive peace (Augsburg, 1555).

End of Charles V.—The aged emperor, abandoned by fortune, *who loves not the old*,

gave up the empire to his brother, and his kingdom to his son, and spent the remainder of his days in the seclusion of San Yuste. The funeral which he is said, though falsely, to have caused to be solemnized during his lifetime, would only have been too faithful an image of the eclipsed glory which he survived. Died 1558.

PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.

The Ottoman Sultans become Caliphs.—Mohammed II. died (May 3, 1481) and with him expired his magnificent projects, which amounted to nothing less than the utter extinction of the Christian name. He was succeeded by his son Bajazet II., who, in 1512, was compelled by his youngest son, Selim, to renounce the throne in his favor. Sultan Selim I. was forty-seven years of age when he dethroned his father. He reigned only eight years, but in that brief period he nearly doubled the extent of the Ottoman Empire.

The splendor of his conquests, the high abilities which he displayed in literature and in politics, as well as in war, and the imperious vigor of his character have secured him a high place among the Ottoman sultans; but his unsparing cruelty to those who served, as well as to those who opposed him, has justly brought down on his memory the indignant reprobation of mankind. The years from 1514 to 1516 were employed by Selim I. in conquering Northern Mesopotamia and a considerable part of Persia. He next reduced Syria, and turned his arms against Egypt, where the Mameluke dynasty had been established since the middle of the thirteenth century. Tuman Bey, Sultan of the Mamelukes, was subdued in the spring of 1517, and Egypt incorporated with the Ottoman dominions. When Selim conquered Egypt, he found there Mohammed, the twelfth caliph of the family of Abbas, and he induced him solemnly to transfer the caliphate to the Ottoman sultan and his successors. At the same time Selim took possession of the visible insignia of that high office which the Abbassides had retained—the sacred standard, the sword, and the mantle of the prophet. The Ottoman Sultan since has been *Caliph, Vicar of the Prophet of God, Commander of the Faithful and Supreme Imam of Islam*. This was the inheritance Selim left to his only son and successor, Solyman I., who for nearly a half century (1520–1566) adorned the throne of the Padishah.

The Knights lose Rhodes.—King Louis II., of Hungary, thinking that the death of the

terrible Selim had made an end to the greatness of the Ottomans, dared to put to death Solyman's ambassador. He immediately led his forces toward Hungary and captured Belgrade (August, 1521), which had so long been a bulwark of Christendom against the Turks, and before which Mohammed, the captor of Constantinople, had so signally failed. Then he turned against the Knights of Rhodes, who had long had complete command of the sea which surrounded their island. They were veritable pirates, who infested the Turkish coasts, interrupted the navigation, and held thousand of Osmanlis in the hardest slavery, and their reduction had therefore long been ardently desired by the Turks. The knights capitulated on December 21, 1522. Four years later (May, 1526) Emperor Charles V. presented to the remnant of the order the Island of Malta, which became their final home.

The Battle of Mohacz.—When the Osmanli army, wasted by this terrible siege of Rhodes, had been recruited to its pristine strength, Solyman determined to give peace to his northern frontiers by the conquest of Hungary. On the swampy plain of Mohacz the flower of the Hungarian nobility perished, mowed down by the fire of the Turkish artillery. King Louis perished during the flight.

The battle of Mohacz was one of those events which decide the fate of nations. By the death of Louis two crowns (of Bohemia and Hungary) became vacant, the succession to which was a subject of vital importance to the future welfare of Europe.

Ferdinand (brother of Emperor Charles V.) considered himself entitled to both by his marriage with Anne, sister of the deceased king, but he deemed it prudent to submit to the right of election claimed both by the Bohemians and Hungarians. In October, 1526, he was duly elected King of Bohemia.

In Hungary was a double election of John Zapolya and of Ferdinand. The former, being driven by Ferdinand out of Hungary, promised to hold the Hungarian crown as Turkish vassal if Solyman would assist him. In May, 1529, Solyman marched again toward Hungary. Buda (Ofen) capitulated on September 8, 1529, and Zapolya was crowned Turkish vassal-king of Hungary.

Siege of Vienna.—Solyman, in person, now marched to Vienna, which had to defend itself against an army of 300,000 Turks, with 300 guns. Solyman sent in a message that if the garrison would surrender, he would not even enter the town, but press on in search of Ferdinand; if they resisted, he should dine in Vienna on the third day, and then no one would be spared. The brave garrison of only

22,000 men and seventy-two guns repulsed all their assaults. The last was delivered October 14th, and in the night the Turks began to retreat. Vienna was saved by the heroism of her defenders, aided by the severity of the season, which the Asiatic troops in the Ottoman army could ill endure. The tide of Turkish conquest in Central Europe had now set its mark. The wave once again dashed as far (1682), but only to be again broken, and then to recede forever.

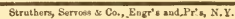
The Emperor becomes tributary to the Sultan.—Solyman, after his retreat from Vienna, did not again appear in Hungary till 1532, when he again invaded Germany with forces even stronger than those which he led against Vienna. But he was checked in his advance by the obstinate defence of the little town of Güns, August, 1532, and after desolating Styria, returned to his own dominions.

The warlike energies of the Ottomans were now for some time chiefly employed in the East, where the unremitted enmity of Persia to Turkey, and the consequent wars between these two great Mahommedan powers, were a cause of relief to Christendom, which her diplomatists of that age freely acknowledged. Solyman added, during that time, to the Ottoman Empire large territories in Armenia and Mesopotamia and the strong cities of Erivan, Van, Mosul, and above all of Bagdad, which the Orientals call the "*Mansion of Victory*."

The war in Hungary had been renewed in consequence of the death of John Zapolya, in 1539, upon which event Ferdinand claimed the whole of Hungary, while Zapolya's widow implored the assistance of the sultan in behalf of her infant son. He came, conquered Hungary again, and established the Ottoman provincial system. In 1547 he made a truce for five years with Ferdinand, which left Solyman in possession of nearly the whole of Hungary and Transylvania, and which bound Ferdinand to pay to the sultan a yearly tribute of 30,000 ducats (\$60,000).

The Siege of Malta.—Solyman's military glory sustained in 1565 a heavy blow, by the complete failure of the expedition against Malta, that new nest of the revived hornets, who intercepted the commerce and assailed the coast of his empire, and held numerous Moslem slaves in cruel bondage. This siege of Malta by 36,000 Turks is one of the most memorable feats of arms of the sixteenth century. Hardly 10,000 Christians and the grand-master, La Valetta, defended the island. Stronghold after stronghold was taken by the Turks, until in July only St. Michael was in the possession of the Christians, which was defended by La Valette in person. After a

PLATE XLIV.



siege of more than two months the Turks abandoned the attempt in despair and set sail for Constantinople. The merit of the defence belongs entirely to La Valette. The new town built on Malta still bears his name. In May, 1566, Hungary was again invaded by Solymán, who died in the beginning of the campaign in the trenches before Szigeth (September 4, 1566).

Solymán Kanouni (*i.e.*, the Law-giver).—The reign of Solymán had been the culminating point of Ottoman glory. Under him the Turks were as formidable on land as on sea; they entered into the politics of Europe by their alliance with France against the House of Austria. But Solymán was more than a warrior: he endeavored to give a system of legislation to his people; he collected the maxims and ordinances of his predecessors, filled up their deficiencies, and organized the civil service of the State. He embellished Constantinople by restoring the ancient aqueduct, whence the water flows into 800 fountains. He founded the mosque Souleimanieh, which contains four colleges, a hospital for the poor, another for the sick, and a library containing 2,000 manuscripts. The Turkish language was ennobled by the admixture of Arabic and Persian. Solymán himself made verses in both languages.

ENGLAND UNDER THE CHILDREN OF HENRY VIII.

Edward VI. (1547–1553).—During the years which are known as those of the reign of the boy-king, the government of England forsook the strong position it had held during the reign of Henry VIII.

Greedy courtiers entered into an alliance with Protestants and Reformers (who even together formed only a small minority among the nation), only that they themselves might plunder ecclesiastics and oppress the poor. No single act of the wealthy landowners had caused such dissatisfaction for many years as the recklessness with which they had driven off the peasants from their agricultural holdings, in order to inclose the land for their sheep, the wool of which fetched a high price. Under Henry VIII. it had been prohibited to convert arable land into pasture. In the days of Edward the prohibition was abandoned, and those who sought, under Ket, "*the tanner of Norwich*," to redress the mischief with their own hands, were cut down without mercy.

Since the beginning of 1553 it was apparent to all that Edward VI. never would arrive at manhood. According to Henry VIII.'s arrangement Mary was then to ascend the throne,

who, through her descent from Queen Catharine and from an inborn disposition, represented the Catholic interest.

The Duke of Northumberland, who misgoverned England in the name of the boy-king, knowing that Mary's accession would be followed by his disgrace, persuaded Edward that it lay in his power to alter his father's settlement of the succession. Henry VIII. had designated the descendants of his younger sister Mary as the next heirs *after* his own children. Mary's elder daughter, Frances, had married Henry Grey, Duke of Suffolk. Their elder daughter was Jane Grey. It was to her, whom Northumberland married to one of his sons, that he now directed the king's attention, and induced him to prefer her to his sisters. On Edward's death, July 6, 1553, the heralds proclaimed the accession of Queen Jane, who betook herself to the Tower, and received the homage offered her. But her proclamation as queen by Northumberland met with no popular response. Northumberland, Lady Jane, and the other plotters were arrested, and afterward executed.

Mary Tudor (1553–1558).—The shouts which welcomed Mary expressed the resolution of the nation to submit no longer to a handful of religious theorists, supported by an unprincipled band of robbers, who chose to style themselves a government. But Mary's reign did not come up to the expectations. If in the days of Edward VI. Protestantism had been associated with selfish greed at home, in the days of Mary Catholicism was associated with incompetence in the domestic government and with a subservient cringing to foreigners. By her marriage with Philip II. (July 25, 1554) the State was laid at the feet of the heir of the Spanish throne. The queen neither understood the English character nor cared for the things for which Englishmen cared. Calais, the pride of many generations of Englishmen, was thrown away by her negligence. (It was captured by Guise, January 7, 1558.)

All she thought of was the success of her beloved Philip, by whom she was regarded with loathing. In England itself, the debased coinage continued to afflict the poor and the man of business alike, while the wealthy were frightened by the evident desire of the queen to place once more the confiscated ecclesiastical lands in the hands of the clergy. Mary's death (November 17, 1558), like Edward's, came at a moment fortunate for herself, when a revolution was preparing to sweep away all that she held most dear.

Accession of Queen Elizabeth.—A few hours after Mary's decease the Commons

were summoned to the upper house to receive a communication there : it was, that Mary was dead and that God had given them another queen, my Lady Elizabeth. The parliament dissolved ; the queen was proclaimed in Westminster and in London. Some days afterward she made her entry into the capital amid the rejoicing of the people, who greeted her accession as their deliverance and their salvation. Elizabeth at once took up the position which had been occupied by Henry VIII. Her reign was indeed the continuation of her father's. The last two reigns had shown the impossibility of governing England by the help of either of the extreme parties, and the queen was therefore well advised in taking up her ground between them.

Yet, prudent as her course was, it was one surrounded with immediate difficulty and danger

THE AGE OF PHILIP II.

Accession of Philip II.—Already King of England (as husband of Mary Tudor) and of Naples, and Duke of Milan, Philip II. received, by his father's solemn resignation, on October 25, 1555, the Burgundian heritage, and a month later Charles ceded to him the crowns of Castile and Aragon, with their dependencies in the Old World and the New. The empire, indeed, passed to his uncle Ferdinand ; but, with this exception, the whole of his father's vast dominions lay now in his grasp. Philip II. was an entirely Castilian prince, who wanted to establish everywhere the Spanish forms of administration, legislation, and religion. At first he restrained himself, in order not to lose his hold on England. But after the death of Mary, and Elizabeth's refusal to marry him (1558), he no longer dissimulated.

Revolt of the Netherlands.—The destruction of more than four hundred churches by the mob in the Netherlands gave him a welcome occasion to begin with the extermination of the Protestants. The Duke of Alba was ordered to march with a Spanish army against the heretics (1566). On his arrival he established the *Council of Blood*, which executed all who were in the least suspected of having aided and abetted in the desecration of the churches. For a moment all was silent and submissive, and when finally they did try to shake off the yoke, they were quickly subdued.

Philip at the Height of his Power.—In 1572 the power of Philip II. had reached its height. The Netherlands were at his feet. In the East his troubles from the pressure of the Turks seemed brought to an end by the brilliant victory at Lepanto (October 7, 1571), in

which his fleet, with those of Venice and the pope, annihilated the fleet of Sultan Selim II. He could throw his whole weight upon the Calvinism of the West, and above all upon France, where the Guises were fast sinking into mere partisans of Spain. The common danger drew France and England together, and Catharine de Medicis strove to bind the two countries in one political action by offering to Elizabeth the hand of her son Anjou. But at this moment of danger the whole situation was changed by the second rising of the Netherlands.

The Rise of the Dutch Republic.—Driven to despair by the greed and persecution of Alba they rose in a revolt which, after strange alternations of fortune, gave to the world the Republic of the United Provinces. The opening which this rising afforded was seized by the Huguenot leaders as a political engine to break the power which Catharine exercised over Charles IX. He, dreading the power of Spain, and eager to grasp the opportunity of breaking it by a seizure of the Netherlands, listened to the counsels of Coligny, who pressed for war upon Philip, and promised the support of the Huguenots in an invasion of the low countries. But to Catharine the supremacy of the Huguenots seemed as fatal to the crown as the supremacy of the Catholics. She suddenly united with the Guises and suffered them to rouse the fanatical mob of Paris, while she won back Charles IX. by picturing the royal power as about to pass into the hands of Coligny. On August 24th, St. Bartholomew's Day, the plot broke out in an awful massacre, in which 100,000 Protestants perished. Instead of conquering the Netherlands, France plunged madly back into a chaos of civil war, and the Dutch were left to cope single-handed with the armies of Spain. They offered successively to submit to the German branch of the house of Austria, to France, and to England. At length the United Provinces, considered as a prey by all to whom they applied, determined to remain a republic.

They concluded the union of Utrecht in 1579. The genius of this new-born State was the Prince of Orange, who, abandoning the southern provinces to the invincible Duke of Parma, maintained the struggle by statesmanship until a fanatic, armed by Spain, assassinated him in 1584. The help now furnished the insurgents by the English, under Leicester (1587), induced Philip to fit out the great Armada, which, however, was destroyed by terrible storms and the bravery of the English (1588). After this blow the prosperity and power of Spain began to decline.

Struggles of Henry IV.—Philip II., repulsed by the Netherlands and England, turned all his forces against France, where three sons of Henry II. and Catharine de Medici had followed each other quickly on the throne. The last survivor, Henry III., having no children, and the majority of the Catholics rejecting the sovereignty of the heretical heir-apparent, Henry of Navarre, the Duke of Guise and Philip II. united to dethrone the last of the Valois, leaving the distribution of the spoil a future subject of dispute. But Henry of Navarre, against every expectation, resisted the whole united force of the Catholics. The murder of Guise, by order of Henry III. (December 22, 1588), forced the latter to throw himself into the arms of the King of Navarre, and they besieged Paris together, which was held by the brother of the murdered Guise, Mayenne, who was now at the head of the Catholic and Spanish party. The Kings of France and Navarre were encamping at St. Cloud, when a young monk, named Clement, assassinated Henry III. (1589). Henry of Navarre, now virtually King of France, was not only abandoned by the Catholics, but soon severely pressed by Mayenne, who made sure of bringing him, with his hands and feet bound, to Paris. But Henry awaited Mayenne near Arques, in Normandy, and held 30,000 men at bay with 3,000. In the following year (1590) he even was victorious over Mayenne and the Spaniards at Ivry, on the Eure. From Ivry he came to blockade Paris, which was not delivered until the arrival of a Spanish army under the Prince of Parma. Mayenne saw he could not maintain his position without the help of the Spaniards, who wanted to give the crown of France to Isabella Clara Eugenia, daughter of Philip II. and Elizabeth de Valois. Dissensions burst out at the meeting of the States General in Paris (1593), where the claims of Philip's daughter were foiled by Mayenne, but not to his own advantage. The league against Henry of Navarre lost its ground of existence by the abjuration, and especially by the absolution of Henry IV. (1593–1595), and its principal stronghold by the entry of the king into the capital (1594). Henry IV. now turned the military ardor of the nation against Spain. In 1598 Philip II. at length gave way; all his projects had failed, and his resources were exhausted. He renounced his pretensions on France by the peace of Vervins (May 2d), and transferred the Netherlands to his daughter Isabella (May 6th). Henry IV. terminated his internal troubles at the same time as his foreign wars, by granting religious toleration and

political guarantees to the Protestants (Edict of Nantes, April, 1598).

The Catholic Reaction.—Only one thing cheered Philip's last years (he died in 1598), Catholicism began definitely to win ground. Her faith was settled and defined. The ecclesiastical abuses were sternly put down. New religious orders rose to meet the wants of the day: the Capuchins became its preachers, the Jesuits became not only its preachers, but its directors, its schoolmasters, its missionaries, its diplomatists. Everywhere the Jesuits won converts, and their peaceful victories were soon backed by the arm of Spain.

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE UNDER THE IMMEDIATE SUCCESSORS OF SOLYMAN THE MAGNIFICENT.

The Battle of Lepanto (October 8, 1571).—While up to Solyman's time the Ottoman power had steadily advanced, after his time it began to go down. Under his indolent successor, Selim II. (1566–1574), the Turks suffered their first great reverse. This was the annihilation of the Ottoman fleet in the Gulf of Lepanto by the combined fleets of Philip II. of Venice and of the pope, under the command of Don Juan d'Austria. Although the Turks lost only their fleet, which might be replaced, while the Venetians lost Cyprus, which for more than three centuries (until 1878) formed part of the Ottoman dominion, none the less the battle of Lepanto marks the turning-point in the history of the Ottoman power. It broke the spell, and taught men that the Turks could be conquered. Hitherto their career had been one of constant advance. Now for the first time they were utterly defeated in a great battle. And with their military power their moral power decayed also. The line of the great Sultans had come to an end. The succession of great rulers, which had gone on without a break from Othman to Solyman, now stopped.

Successors of Selim II.—Under Amurath III., Mohammed III., and Ahmed I. (1574–1617) the Turks kept up, with variable success, long wars against the Persians and Hungarians.

The Janissaries, who had disturbed the reigns of these princes with mutinies, put their successors, Mustapha and Othman, to death (1617–1623). At last, however, Amurath IV. (1623–1640), the conqueror of Bagdad, reduced the Janissaries to order; he was the last great sultan of the family of Othman, but died at an early period, exhausted by intemperance. His brother Ibrahim was put to death in the same year in which the Christian powers ended the Thirty Years' War (1648).

THE DECLINE OF THE SPANISH ASCENDENCY (1598-1659).

BEFORE THE BREAKING OUT OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR, 1598-1618.

The House of Habsburg in Spain.—At the peace of Vervins (1598) just a century had elapsed since the French, by their invasion of Italy, had inaugurated the modern European system, and the result up to this time had been entirely in favor of their Spanish rivals. Spain had succeeded in seizing and retaining the kingdom of Naples and the Duchy of Milan, while throughout the whole of the peninsula her influence was paramount. In spite of a wretched system of administration and the revolt of her provinces in the Netherlands, she was, at the death of Philip II. (1598), still incontestably the leading power of Europe. The Spanish infantry continued to retain their prestige; the conquest of Portugal (*Spanish province*, 1581-1640) helped to support the declining power and reputation of Spain; and Philip II., toward the close of his long reign, still aspired to Universal Monarchy, by the conquest of England, and the reduction of France under his dominion by placing his daughter on the throne. But the exhaustion of Spain quickly increased under the administrations of the Cardinal-Duke of Lerma and the Duke of Olivarez, favorites of Philip III. and Philip IV. As Spain no longer produced merchandise to exchange for the precious metals of America, she was no longer enriched by them. In 1609 Spain was forced to grant a truce of twelve years to the revolted Netherlands, and in the same year this truce ended (1621) she drove away a million of industrious subjects (the Moors from Valencia).

The House of Habsburg in Hungary, Bohemia, and Austria.—Ferdinand I. and Maximilian II. were prudent and judicious princes; they maintained toleration and were principally anxious for the peace and prosperity of their people. The grand feature of Maximilian's reign (1564-1576) is his wise moderation in religious matters. To him belongs the honor of being the first European Sovereign to adopt toleration, not from policy but from principle. His wife, Mary of Castile, a daughter of Charles V., was entirely led by the Jesuits. The marriage of her eldest daughter Anne to Philip II. of Spain (November, 1570), strengthened the Roman Catholic party in Austria. Maximilian's eldest son Rodolph was educated in Spain in the strictest principles of the Roman Catholic faith. After the death of Don Carlos (1568) Philip thought of making Rodolph his successor and to give him the hand of his then only daughter in marriage.

But these plans came to nothing. Rodolph returned into Germany, and was invested successively with the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, as well as elected King of the Romans.

At his father's death (1576), besides the Imperial crown, he also succeeded to the sole possession of the Austrian lands: for Maximilian established the right of primogeniture in his hereditary dominions. Rodolph, however, entrusted the Austrian administration to his brother, the Archduke Ernest, and took up his own residence for the most part at Prague. Rodolph possessed considerable abilities and acquirements which were chiefly applied to alchemy and astrology; the latter of which led him to patronize the eminent astronomers Kepler and Tycho Brahe.

Though himself unfit to govern, he was yet loath to resign any share of his power to his eldest surviving brother Matthias, the heir presumptive of his hereditary lands. In 1606 Matthias was, by a family compact, declared Head of the House of Habsburg, and two years later Rodolph ceded Hungary to Matthias as well as the Archduchy of Austria. The Emperor still retained Bohemia, but Matthias received the title of King-elect of Bohemia. When, in 1609, even Bohemia rose against Rodolph, in order not to lose its crown also, he signed the celebrated Royal Charter (*Majestaets-Brief*), which was the immediate occasion of the Thirty Years' War. By this instrument liberty of conscience was allowed to all Bohemians who belonged to certain recognized religions and they received permission to build churches on all crown lands.

It was soon discovered that the Emperor Rodolph intended not to observe the Royal Charter, and that he was endeavoring to deprive his brother Matthias of the succession to the crown of Bohemia. The States assembled (April, 1611) and demanded of Rodolph, who was a virtual prisoner in their hands, to be released from their allegiance. On the 23d of May Matthias received the crown and the homage of the Bohemians; recognizing, however, their right to elect their kings and engaging to observe the charter granted by Rodolph.

Rodolph, whose derangement had rendered his deposition necessary, did not long survive these transactions; he died January 20, 1612, and, in the following June, Matthias was elected Emperor in his place.

The House of Vasa in Sweden and Poland.—The three Northern kingdoms of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were joined

together under the famous Danish Queen Margaret, by the union of Calmar (1397). The union, however, lasted hardly fifty years (until 1448), when the Danes elected for their King Count Christian of Oldenburg, while the Swedes and Norwegians chose Charles Knutson, who on his deathbed (1470) bequeathed Sweden to Sten Sture. Christian I. was succeeded in 1481 by his son John, who was also in 1483 acknowledged in Sweden, where, however, in spite of all his efforts, the Sture family succeeded in retaining the virtual sovereignty. When John died (1513) he was succeeded by his son, Christian II., who equally irritated the Danish nobility, against which he protected the peasantry; Sweden, which, after his victory over the Stures, he deluged with blood (1520), and the Hanse towns, against which he had closed the Danish ports by his prohibitions (1517). He was soon punished both for the good and evil which he had done by insurrections in all his dominions. That in Sweden was led by Gustavus Vasa, a descendant of King Charles Knutson, who at Christmas, 1521, roused the nation against the Danes, who were everywhere either killed or driven away. At the end of a few months the only possessions which they retained in Sweden were Abo, Calmar, and Stockholm.

Christian II. had chosen precisely this critical moment for attempting in Denmark a revolution capable of shaking the steadiest throne. He published two edicts, which excited against him the most powerful orders in that kingdom, the clergy and the nobility. He suppressed the temporal jurisdiction of the bishops and deprived the nobles of the right to sell their peasants. The nobles and bishops promptly dethroned him, and offered the crown to his uncle Frederick Duke of Holstein. Thus Christian II. lost both Denmark and Sweden at the same time.

After having delivered Sweden from the foreigner, Gustavus wrested her from the bishops. As in other parts of Europe, the nobles were induced to join the movement by the prospect of sharing the spoils of the Church, and in a great diet at Westerås, in 1527, the reformation was introduced. The castles and lands, of the prelates were then seized, convents were suppressed, and their inmates turned adrift; and many were inclined to withhold even the tithes of the parochial clergy had not the king issued an order for their payment. For this kingdom of Sweden was governed rather by the personal authority of the monarch than by settled laws, and its external importance depended more on the character of its inhabitants than on the amount of its revenue. The income of Gustavus Vasa did

not surpass \$6,000, while his expenses frequently exceeded \$60,000; and yet he was the object of veneration, not only to his own people but to all Europe.

Gustavus was succeeded in 1550 by his eldest son, Eric XIV., who, being insane, was deposed and murdered (1578). He was succeeded by his brother John (1578-1592). The artifices of his wife, Catherine (sister of the last of the Jagellos in Poland), inspired this monarch with a predilection for Catholicism, which had very nearly drawn upon him a fate similar to that of his brother; he lived, however, to see his son Sigismund seated on the throne of Poland. This Sigismund thought proper to manifest his dislike of the Protestant nobility in a manner which soon destroyed their confidence in him. Dissident churches were forbidden on all the crown estates, and Protestants were excluded from the Senate. The Swedes who had scarcely known how to forgive his father's tranquil preference for Catholicism, were unable to endure a king who was endeavoring, with imprudent zeal, to counteract all the sentiments and habits which had been introduced among them since the accession of Gustavus Vasa. They therefore deprived him of Sweden and committed the administration of affairs to his uncle, Charles, Duke of Sudermanland, at first under the title of protector and afterward of king (1604). This Charles had frequently not more than a thousand dollars in his treasury, but his prudence and successful adherence to the maxims of his father sufficed to confirm his power. He was succeeded in 1611 on the Swedish throne by Gustavus Adolphus.

The House of Stuart in England and Scotland.—Lonely as Queen Elizabeth had always been, her loneliness deepened as she drew toward the grave. The temper of the age, in fact, was changing, and isolating her as it changed. Her own England, the England which had grown up around her, serious, moral, prosaic, shrunk coldly from this brilliant, fanciful, unscrupulous child of earth and the renaissance. The statesmen and warriors of her earlier days had dropped one by one from her council-board. Leicester had died in the year of the Armada (1588); two years later Walsingham followed him to the grave; in 1598 Burleigh himself passed away. The rivalry between Robert Cecil and her favorite Lord Essex hurried the latter into fatal projects, which led to his failure in Ireland and to an insane outbreak of revolt, which brought him in 1601 to the block. After the signing of the death-warrant of Essex (her grandchild by adoption and last of the Boleyn blood) a strange melancholy settled

down upon her and in the early morning of March 24, 1603, the life of Queen Elizabeth ebbed quietly away.

When James I., son of Mary, Queen of Scots, succeeded to Elizabeth, the long reign of that princess had exhausted the enthusiasm and the obedience of the nation. The character of the new king was not calculated to efface this impression. England beheld with a jealous eye a Scotch king, surrounded by Scotchmen, belonging, through his mother to the House of Guise; more versed in theology than in politics and turning pale at the sight of a sword. Everything about him was displeasing to the English; his imprudent declaration in favor of the divine right of kings, his project for the union of England and Scotland, and his tolerance toward the Catholics, who conspired against him (Gunpowder Plot, 1605). On the other hand, Scotland was not better pleased with his attempt to impose upon her the Anglican form of worship. James I., in the hands of his favorites, made himself by his prodigality dependent on the parliament, which at the same time he irritated by the contrast between his weakness and pretensions.

Elizabeth's glory had consisted in raising England in her own estimation; the misfortune of the Stuarts lay in humiliating her. James gave up the part which his predecessors had played, of the enemy of Spain and Chief of the Protestants in Europe. He did not declare war with Spain until 1625, and then in spite of his own wishes. He married his son to a Catholic princess (Henrietta of France).

The House of Hohenzollern in Brandenburg and Prussia.—We saw that by the peace of Thorn, in 1446, the Teutonic Order made over West Prussia to Poland, and consented to hold East Prussia in feudal subjection to Poland. The Grand-Masters of the Teutonic Order soon attempted to shirk the feudal homage due to Poland, and even to recover Western Prussia. In the hope that by means of his family connections he would be able to restore the Order's independence, they chose, in 1511, as Grand-Master, Albert of Hohenzollern. This, however, he was unable to do, and in April, 1521, after an unfortunate war, he was glad to conclude a four years' truce with Poland. During this truce Albert went to Germany in the vain hope of obtaining help of the Empire. On his way back he had an interview with Luther, who advised him to take a wife and convert Prussia into an hereditary principality. At the expiration of the truce (April, 1525) he repaired to Cracow and concluded a peace with King Sigismund I., by virtue of

which he received East Prussia as a secular duchy, with succession to his heirs, but still in feudal subjection to Poland. He was succeeded, in 1568, by his son, Albert Frederick, who died in 1618 without male issue. His son-in-law, John Sigismund, of Brandenburg, united now the Duchy of Prussia with the Electorate in Brandenburg.

Cleve Succession. (Plate XLII.)—In the city of Donauwörth, a Catholic procession was hooted and assaulted by a Protestant mob (1606), in consequence of which the city was placed under the ban of the Empire and the execution of the sentence intrusted to Maximilian of Bavaria (August, 1607). A demand was then made for the expenses of executing the ban, which were estimated so high as to render payment impossible, and thus Donauwörth from a free imperial Protestant city was converted into a Catholic provincial town of Bavaria. The German Protestant princes, being alarmed by the proceedings at Donauwörth, formed a defensive alliance called the *Protestant Union* (1608). This alliance on the part of the Protestants provoked a counter one of the Catholics, organized by Maximilian of Bavaria, which afterward obtained the name of the *Holy League*. The leader of the Union was the Elector Palatine; of the League, the Duke of Bavaria, both princes of the house of Wittelsbach.

Thus the great religious parties of Germany were formally arrayed against each other; for open violence nothing was wanting but the occasion, and this was afforded by a dispute which arose respecting the Cleve succession.

On March 25, 1609, had died, without issue, John William, Duke of Cleves, Julich, and Berg, Count of the Mark and Ravensberg, and Lord of Ravenstein. Numerous claimants to the Cleves succession arose, of which the Elector of Brandenburg and the Prince of Neuburg were the principal claimants. The question between these claimants turned on the point whether the daughter of the eldest sister could contest the claim of the son of the youngest sister. In the present posture of affairs the question of this succession derived its chief importance from the circumstance that the Dukes of Cleves had remained firmly attached to the orthodox creed, thus constituting one of the few large Catholic lay powers among the temporal princes of Germany. Emperor Rudolph evoked the cause before the Aulic Council, as the proper tribunal in all feudal disputes, and till a definite judgment should be pronounced he sequestered them in the hands of his cousin, Leopold, Bishop of Passau. The Elector of Brandenburg and the Prince of Neuburg, reckoning on the support

of France and the Netherlands, resolved to make common cause; and, regardless of the Emperor's prohibition to the inhabitants of the duchies to acknowledge any lord till the imperial decision was awarded, they jointly occupied those territories, and, relying upon the help of Henry IV., assumed the title of *Princes in possession*.

Assassination of Henry IV. of France.—The reliance which the Protestant princes placed on Henry IV. was not unfounded. For Henry, or rather his chief adviser, Sully, had formed a magnificent scheme for the reconstruction of Europe. Against the Spanish plan of a universal *Theocratic Monarchy*, Sully formed the antagonistic one of a *Christian Republic*, in which for the bigotry and intolerance, supported by physical force, were to be substituted a mutual toleration and the suppression of all persecution. A principal aim, and indeed essential condition of the scheme, was the wresting of the imperial sceptre from the House of Habsburg; a scheme which appeared to be feasible only by enticing the Duke of Bavaria with the hope of obtaining it. It does not appear how far Maximilian of Bavaria himself had entered into this plan for transferring to him the empire; yet it is certain that he remained perfectly quiet at the time of the French king's projected invasion, notwithstanding that the members of the Protestant Union had taken up arms. In the midst of great preparations for war, Henry was assassinated at Paris (May 14, 1610) by François Ravallac. He was succeeded by his minor son, Louis XIII., under the regency of his mother, Marie de' Medici. Henry's assassination postponed the coming war nearly eight years.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR (1618-1648).

The Immediate Causes.—Southern Germany, where the Austrian Habsburgs, so long lukewarm in Catholicism, had at last become zealots in its defence, was the first country to be recatholicized. In 1619 the childless Emperor Matthias secured for his cousin Ferdinand (grandson of Emperor Ferdinand I.), Duke of Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, who had been educated by the Jesuits in strict Catholicism, the succession in Bohemia and Hungary, in spite of the objections of the Protestant estates. Soon afterward he was also elected emperor.

In the meantime the Bohemians had deposed him from the throne of Bohemia and elected the young Frederick V., Elector Palatine, head of the Protestant *Union* and son-in-law of James I., King of England (*The*

Winter King). Emperor Ferdinand II. called in the help of Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria, head of the Catholic *League*, who marched to Bohemia and drove the Winter King out of Prague. He was put under the ban and his lands confiscated (1620). This was the beginning of the terrible *Thirty Years' War* (1618-1648), the last struggle which marked the progress of the reformation. It is generally divided into four periods, which were properly as many different wars.

The Bohemian-Palatine Period 1618-1623.—Maximilian of Bavaria with the army of the League commanded by Tilly, marched to Bohemia and joined the imperial general, Buquoy. They were victorious (November 8, 1620), in the battle of Weissenberg, over the troops of Frederick V., who, defeated and helpless, abandoned the contest in despair, and forfeited both the Bohemian crown and his Electorate.

The defeat of Frederick V. (*the Winter king*) produced the destruction of the constitution of Bohemia, and of the *Evangelical Union* in the empire, which had neglected to support its own interests. The Emperor Ferdinand, strengthened by victory and by the acquisition of treasures from the confiscations, now turned his armies to the Palatinate, which was conquered in execution of the ban by Maximilian's general, Tilly, with the help of Spanish troops under Spinola. At a diet held at Ratisbon (January, 1623), the Upper Palatinate, together with the Electoral dignity, was transferred to Maximilian of Bavaria.

Thus the Count Palatine was irretrievably ruined, chiefly through the selfish anxiety of his father-in-law, James I. of England, to effect a match between his son and the Infanta, which prevented him from vigorously assisting his son-in-law against the House of Habsburg.

The Danish Period.—Christian IV. of Denmark, who, as Duke of Holstein, was also a German prince, was elected military chief of the Circle of Lower Saxony (May, 1625), and on the 18th of that month he addressed a letter to Emperor Ferdinand II., in which he declared his determination to put an end to the quartering of troops, with which some of the princes of that circle were oppressed, contrary to the laws of the empire. Ferdinand answered politely, postponing the consideration of the questions urged, though he went on increasing his forces.

Meanwhile, Christian IV. marched his army from the Elbe to the Weser, where he met Tilly with the imperial army, who, although the campaign went in his favor, appealed to the emperor for assistance. At the time of

Tilly's application for aid, Wallenstein, Duke of Friedland, offered to raise, at his own expense, an army of 20,000 men for the emperor, the troops to be supported by requisitions wherever they were cantoned. His offer having been accepted, a hundred patents of colonelcies were sold by Wallenstein to the greater nobles, on condition of their providing officers and men. These colonels in turn sold patents to their captains, the captains to their subalterns, without any reference to the imperial government, and thus was created an army which looked up to Wallenstein as their lord and proprietor. With this army he marched into Northern Germany, defeated the Protestants under Mansfield at the *Bridge of Dessau*, and then, united with Tilly, conquered Holstein (1627). Wallenstein alone conquered Schleswig and Jutland, drove the dukes of Mecklenburg from their country, and forced the Duke of Pomerania to submission.

In order to prevent a junction of the Danes and Swedes, a peace was concluded at Lubeck (1629) between the emperor and the king of Denmark, on terms exceedingly favorable to the latter, who received back all the territories of which he had been deprived by Wallenstein and Tilly, on pledging himself never to become a party to any confederacy against the emperor.

Result of the Conquest of Northern Germany.—The emperor, elated with his victory, began a crusade against the Protestants of Germany, beginning with those of Bohemia. Many of the leading men of Bohemia were executed; hundreds of Bohemian families were exiled; and the Catholic worship was restored in all the lands of the Bohemian crown. The emperor's designs extended beyond Bohemia. He aimed at the reduction of all the German princes to the same position as the nobles of other countries; and as a step to the accomplishment of this, he ordered the restoration of all the church lands that had been seized by laymen subsequently to the treaty of Passau (*Edict of Restitution*, March 29, 1629).

Even the Catholics, many of whom had shared in the distribution of the church lands, resisted this decree, and began to be alarmed at the immense power which the House of Habsburg was assuming in the empire, under the pretence of zeal for the restoration of the Catholic Church. It was, however, carried into effect with great severity by Wallenstein. But the discontent excited by his proceedings was expressed by the estates of the empire so loudly and unequivocally as to compel the emperor to dismiss Wallenstein from his service (June 24, 1630).

On the same day Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden landed in Northern Germany.

Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, was now in his thirty-sixth year. His father had left him a well-confirmed authority, though without treasure; the nobles who might have endangered his power had been humbled in the preceding revolutions, and there was nothing to fear from Russia, Denmark, or Poland. The Tsar Michael Romanoff purchased peace from the young king (1617), at the expense of a part of Livonia; and the King of Denmark renounced the claim which the house of Oldenburg had hitherto maintained, to reign over the Swedes against their will. Richelieu had, through his ambassador Charnacé, negotiated a truce between Sweden and Poland and promised to furnish Gustavus with an annual subsidy.

Germany appeared, in reality, to be the country in which he might seek for power and opulence with the greatest prospect of success. He knew that, though the royal power was circumscribed in Sweden by definite laws, yet the devotion of nations to extraordinary men is not to be confined by rules, and he undertook to render his people a nation of heroes. His method of conducting war was of his own invention, and founded upon excellent principles; he was well acquainted with the experience and the maxims of antiquity; but his intelligent mind was able to modify them according to the nature of the weapons and other circumstances of modern times. He felt the inconveniences of the heavy infantry, and as he placed more reliance on the execution of manœuvres than on physical strength, he disposed that species of force in smaller divisions and moved them in platoons among the cavalry. Together with the lofty character of his genius, which manifested itself in the greatness of his plans, he combined the power of attention to minute details in the organization of his army, and a calm and penetrating insight into circumstances of the greatest intricacy. He also knew how to inflame his troops with religious ardor.

The Swedish Period (1630-1635).—Having wrested Pomerania from the Imperialists, Gustavus in vain endeavored to persuade the Elector of Saxony, and the Elector of Brandenburg, his brother-in-law, to ally themselves with him in defence of their religion. He expected that Tilly's attack upon Magdeburg (March, 1631) would procure him the alliance of those princes, but as both of them continued to decline his proposals, he was compelled to leave Magdeburg to its fate, which consequently was taken by storm (May 10th) and dreadfully handled by Pappenheim, who served

under Tilly. This sack of Magdeburg, however, threw Brandenburg and Saxony into the arms of Gustavus. Tilly at once marched into Saxony and occupied Leipsic, and on the approach of Gustavus and the Saxon Elector he offered them battle at Breitenfeld. After an engagement of five hours Tilly was completely defeated (September 7, 1631).

After this decisive victory, Germany seemed to lie at the mercy of the Swedish King, who resolved to march to the Rhine. A Swedish officer who preceded him succeeded in gaining to his alliance the great towns on his route.

At Christmas, 1631, Gustavus was holding court at Mayence, the recognized head of Protestant Germany, accompanied by his consort, and surrounded by a crowd of princes and ambassadors. The Swedish arms appeared everywhere successful; the greater part of Germany was in their hands; the Catholic League had been dissipated.

At the urgent request of Emperor Ferdinand, Wallenstein collected an army of 40,000 men, over which he received uncontrolled command. The Saxons, who after the battle of Breitenfeld had occupied Prague, were so quickly driven from Bohemia that their eagerness for the war and the Swedish alliance became materially chilled.

Meanwhile Gustavus was pushing on his conquests and pursued Tilly and his retreating army into Bavaria. The Danube was passed at Donauwörth, without opposition, but Tilly, strongly posted at Rain, disputed the passage of the Lech. After Tilly had been mortally wounded the Bavarians abandoned their position (April 15th).

Gustavus went to Augsburg, vainly besieged Maximilian in Ingolstadt, but forced Munich to surrender. Wallenstein was now summoned to the assistance of Maximilian. After the junction of their armies Wallenstein assumed the chief command. Gustavus, who had in vain endeavored to prevent this junction, now hastened to seize Nuremberg, where he could easily communicate with his allies both in North and South Germany, while the situation of the place rendered it easy of defence; and the town, with its immediate environs, was converted into one vast fortified camp, capable of sheltering 50,000 men. Wallenstein also established a fortified camp a few miles north of Nuremberg. Here the two great captains sat nine weeks watching each other. Wallenstein's intrenchments were attacked in vain (August 24th). A fortnight afterward (September 7th) Gustavus broke up from his camp and took the road to Bavaria. Wallenstein also broke up and marched into Saxony, for

the purpose of compelling the elector to renounce his alliance with the Swedes.

Gustavus, at the earnest entreaty of the elector, returned by forced marches toward Saxony, and finding that Wallenstein's troops were now dispersed in winter quarters and that a detachment under Pappenheim had been sent to the Rhine, he compelled the Imperialists to give him battle on the plain which stretches from Lützen to Leipsic. In this battle Gustavus Adolphus lost his life (November 16, 1632). But the Swedes, now under command of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, enraged by the death of their king, fought with a fury and desperation which nothing could resist, and after a bloody struggle of nine hours, Wallenstein's troops at last gave way. Thus perished, in his thirty-eighth year, Gustavus Adolphus, the greatest sovereign of his age, whose best title to immortality is that he set a bound to religious persecution.

Wallenstein, instead of profiting by the confusion caused by the death of Gustavus Adolphus, remained inactive, and entered into negotiations with France for the crown of Bohemia. This furnished his enemies at the imperial court with sufficient ground of accusation. Without affording him an opportunity of being heard in his own defence the emperor removed Wallenstein from his command, and on February 25, 1634, he was assassinated at Eger by some of his own officers. He was succeeded in his command by the emperor's eldest son, Ferdinand, who in conjunction with the Bavarians (under *John von Werth*) defeated the Swedish generals, *Saxe-Weimar* and *Horn*, at Nördlingen, in Suabia. Saxe-Weimar fled to the Rhine, Horn was taken prisoner, and Suabia, Franconia, and the Palatinate were occupied by detachments of the imperial army.

As little assistance could now be expected from their Swedish allies, the Protestants of Southwestern Germany were compelled to purchase the protection of France by the sacrifice of Upper Alsace.

Peace of Prague (May 30, 1635).—The condition of discreditable dependence on a foreign power in which the Protestants of Germany now found themselves, was fully recognized by the Elector of Saxony, who, in the spirit of a true patriot, set on foot such negotiations as terminated in the Peace of Prague. All *mediate* possessions of the Church secularized *before* the Peace of Passau should remain to the Protestants forever, and all other *mediate* possessions and such *immediate* ones as had been confiscated *since* the Peace of Passau should remain to them for forty years; before the expiration of which term a mixed commission was to

settle how such property should be proceeded with at the end of it. The hereditary right of the House of Habsburg to the Bohemian crown was acknowledged; Lusatia was ceded to the Elector of Saxony as a Bohemian fief, and his son was invested with the administration of Magdeburg. Pomerania was to be made over to the Elector of Brandenburg in case he acceded to the treaty.

The Elector of Saxony was to assist in expelling the Swedes from Germany. In the following year, accordingly, the Saxons joined the Imperialists under Count Hatsfeld, for the purpose of driving the Swedes under Baner from Northern Germany, and were utterly defeated by that general near Wittstock, in Brandenburg (1636).

The Franco-Swedish Period (1636-1648).—Richelieu, who since 1624 governed France, had found the kingdom abandoned to Spanish influence, disturbed by the princes and by the nobles, by the queen-mother and by the Protestants. He adopted the system of Henry IV., with this difference: that he had no anterior obligation, no motive of gratitude to force him to keep terms with the Protestants. He took from them La Rochelle, by throwing across the sea a stone dyke more than half a mile long; he conquered, disarmed, and nevertheless reassured them (1627-1628). His next measures were against the princes and nobles. He turned the mother and brother of Louis XIII. out of France, and struck off the heads of a Marillac and a Montmorency (1630-1632). There remained for him only to gild these internal victories with the glory of foreign conquests.

First he purchased (in October, 1635) Bernard of Saxe-Weimar, the best pupil of Gustavus Adolphus, with his army. This was the commencement of the short but brilliant career which ended with Bernard's death in 1639, whose motives, however, could only have been selfish. He had hoped to cut out for himself, amid the chaos of confusion, a kingdom, or at least a duchy.

At about the same time Richelieu allied himself with the Dutch to share the Spanish portion of the Netherlands, while at the other end of France he set himself to recover Roussillon. An alliance with the Duke of Savoy secured for him a passage into Italy.

Everything became easy for Richelieu from the moment that the revolt of Catalonia and Portugal reduced Spain to a defensive war. The House of Braganza ascended the throne of Portugal with the applause of all Europe (1640). The French, already victorious in Italy, took Arras and Thionville, in the Netherlands. The great Condé gained the battle

of Rocroy (May 18, 1643), five days after the accession of Louis XIV.; a success which reassured France, deprived by death of Richelieu (December, 1642) and Louis XIII. (May, 1643).

The great war had then for the second time changed its character. To the fanaticism of Tilly and his master, Ferdinand II., to the revolutionary genius of Wallenstein and Saxe-Weimar, had succeeded skilful tacticians such as Piccolomini and Merci, generals of the emperor; and the pupils of Gustavus Adolphus, Baner, Torstenson, and Wrangel. As war had become a profession for so many years, peace became more and more difficult. France entirely occupied in securing her conquests of Lorraine and Alsace, refused to help Sweden any longer against Austria. At one time Torstenson hoped to succeed without the assistance of France. This paralytic general, who astonished Europe with the rapidity of his movements, had renewed the glory of Gustavus by his victory at Leipsic (1642); in the Danes he had struck down the secret friends of the emperor (1643-1645); an alliance with the Transylvanians permitted him to penetrate at length into Austria (1645). The defection of the Transylvanians and the death of Torstenson saved the emperor. The war about this time seemed to be carried on merely for its own sake, without any great or even definite object, only to gratify the cupidity or ambition of a few leaders, excited by the subtle and selfish policy of France.

Negotiations, however, had been opened already in 1636, and the accession of Emperor Ferdinand III. (1637) had appeared likely to favor them. Preliminaries of peace were signed in 1642. But the death of Richelieu reawakened the hopes of the House of Habsburg and postponed the peace. The victories of Condé at Freiburg (1644), Nördlingen (1645), and Lens (August 20, 1648), that of Turenne and Wrangel at Zusmarshausen (May 17, 1648), and finally the seizure (July 31, 1648) of the Kleinseite (small town) of Prague by Königs-marck, where an enormous booty was captured, all these disasters determined the emperor to conclude peace. And thus, singularly enough, the thirty years war was finished at the same place where it had broken out.

Peace of Westphalia.—Toward the end of September, 1648, the conferences at Osnabrück were transferred to Münster, where, after negotiations which had lasted between four and five years, were signed the two treaties of Westphalia. The objects of the peace were twofold: First, the settlement of the affairs of the empire; and second, the satisfaction of France and Sweden.

I. *The settlement of the Holy Roman Empire.*

The sovereignty of the different German States, in the whole extent of their territory, was formally recognized. Indemnities were granted to several States; and in order to discharge them many ecclesiastical possessions were secularized. The son of the Count Palatine recovered the *Lower Palatinate* (the *Higher Palatinate* remained Bavarian), and an eighth electorate was created in his favor.

II. *The Satisfaction of France and Sweden.*

FRANCE obtained Alsace, the three bishoprics (*Metz, Toul, and Verdun*), and the keys of Germany and Piedmont, *Philipsburg* and *Pignerol*. Plate XLII.

SWEDEN obtained part of Pomerania, Wismar, and the bishoprics Bremen (*not the city*) and Werden, as secular duchies, and \$5,000,000. Sweden became also a member of the German Diet, with three votes. Plate XLV.

The republics of the United Netherlands and of Switzerland were recognized as independent of the empire.

Thus the policy of France and Sweden had been entirely successful. These countries, besides raising up a counterpoise to the power of the Emperor in Germany itself, had succeeded in aggrandizing themselves at the expense of the empire. Sweden, indeed, in the course of the next century, was to lose most of her acquisitions; but France had at last seated herself, for more than two coming centuries, on the Rhine; the House of Habsburg lost the preponderance it had enjoyed since the time of Charles V., which was now to be transferred to her rival. Soon, after a short period of miserable civil war, we shall have to contemplate France as the leading European power, a post which she mainly owed to the genius and policy of Cardinal de Richelieu.

ENGLAND DURING THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Closing Years of James I.—During the latter part of James' reign he was greatly influenced by George Villiers, better known as Duke of Buckingham. Originally the son of a Leicestershire knight, he became the first noble in the land. All the principal offices of the State were filled with his creatures, much to the disgust of the nation. He was bound to the Prince of Wales by a common interest in one or two of these employments which fill up daily life: for instance, by fondness for art and art collections, but principally by the companionship into which they had been thrown, first in the cabinet of James I., who weighed his conclusions by their assistance, and afterward in their journey to Spain. James, under Buckingham's influence, did re-

fuse to join the Evangelical Union to help his son-in-law, the Count Palatine. But he hoped to assist him to recover his patrimony by forming a marriage between the Prince of Wales and a Spanish Infanta. Nothing came of this projected Anglo-Spanish alliance, sealed by a marriage, against the Emperor. The final answer of the Spanish Government was: "*The King of Spain must never fight against the Emperor.*"

The Prince of Wales finally married (1625) Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.

Charles I. and the Parliament (1625-1629).—When James I. died, in 1625, Buckingham became, if possible, more completely master of England than he had been before. He would take no counsel which was not in accordance with his own wishes. In the first two years of the reign of Charles I. a war with France was added to the war with Spain, while expedition after expedition was sent forth to Cadiz (1625) and to Rhé (1627), each one to a disaster more ignominious than the last. The House of Commons, stirred to action by the incapacity of the government, demanded, under Eliot's leadership, that the honor of England should no longer be committed to hands so rash. Charles stood by his friend, struggled to carry on the war by forced loans and by imprisonment of those who refused to pay them. He simply succeeded in stripping himself of all the authority which Elizabeth had derived from her position as representative of the nation.

When Buckingham was murdered in 1628 that authority had passed irrevocably into the hands of the House of Commons, which had just driven the king to renounce, by his assent to the *Petition of Right*, his claim to levy taxes without its consent, and to imprison without the consent of the judges.

Charles I. without Parliament.—The king determined to rule without the uncontrollable Parliament, and in 1629 began a period of eleven years in which Parliament was not allowed to meet.

His object was to manage Englishmen as he thought best, not to help them to manage themselves better than they knew how to do without assistance. In the State he provided a fleet for the defence of the country, not by rousing the patriotic feelings of Englishmen, but by levying ship-money by his own authority. This enforcement of ship-money led the way to a breach of the constitutional practice which had been sanctioned by the *Petition of Right*, that money should not be taken without a parliamentary grant.

But the resistance to the principle was much



strengthened by the fact that it involved resistance to the payment of money.

Charles I. and Scotland.—The special object of the first two Stuart kings was to complete, on Tudor's principles, the institutions of Church and State in England, and to extend the same to Scotland. But they had thereby awakened, in the land of their birth, a spirit of resistance at once aristocratic and religious. The king hoped to crush the Scottish movement by the strength of royal influence in England; but the consequences were the very opposite, for the movement spread into England also. Twice (1639 and 1640) he attempted to bring the force of England to bear upon the Scots, who drove away his bishops and claimed to settle their affairs without his concurrence. Twice he failed entirely. Englishmen would not fight in such a cause. At last the Scottish army gained possession of Northumberland and Durham, and it was found necessary to summon a Parliament which would find him money to buy them off.

The Long Parliament (1640-1660).—The Parliament which was now convened (November, 1640) was naturally not disposed to find the king money without demanding anything in return. Wentworth, now Earl of Strafford, who had been the most energetic maintainer of the king's system, was brought to the block (May, 1641). The Star Chamber and the Ecclesiastical Commission were swept away. The right to levy ship-money and customs without a parliamentary grant was abandoned by the king, and, as far as the law could bind him, Charles was reduced to act in accordance with the wishes of his Parliament. He even assented to an act depriving himself of the power of dissolving the existing Parliament without its own consent. But he retained the right of refusing his assent to the bills accepted by it, so that he could, without any effort of his own, put a stop to all further legislation. He also retained still the command of the militia, which furnished the only military force then known, and the appointment of the officers by which it was controlled. Then old attachment to the monarchy and conservative dislike of change drew to him many supporters, especially among the country gentry. If he had acted straightforwardly public opinion might have rallied around him. Instead of that he engaged in one intrigue after another, and at last his attack on the *Five Members* (January 4, 1642) shocked those who feared what he might do if he regained his old authority. Therefore the Parliament assumed the royal prerogative, expelled the bishops from the Upper House, and submitted nineteen propositions to the king,

demanding, among other things, the power of appointing and dismissing ministers, of naming guardians for the royal children, and of controlling military, civil, and religious affairs. These propositions being indignantly rejected, a *Committee of Public Safety* was appointed by Parliament (July, 1642), and Essex made captain-general of a Parliamentary army of 20,000 foot and 4,000 cavalry. Three weeks later (August 22d) Charles unfurled the royal standard at Nottingham.

The Civil War.—The Parliamentary army (in which Oliver Cromwell soon distinguished himself) obtained two victories (Marston Moor, July 2, 1644, and Naseby, June 14, 1645) over the ill-disciplined forces of the king, who sought an asylum among the Scotch and was delivered up by them to the English Parliament (January 30, 1647). About this time began the disputes between the Puritans, who were most influential in Parliament, and the Independents, who governed the army. The latter having obtained possession of the king's person, their leader, Cromwell, defeated the Scotch in the three days battle at Preston Pans (August 17-20, 1648), who had invaded England for the purpose of rescuing the king. It was now resolved to bring Charles to trial. The king, after a solemn trial, was publicly executed on the scaffold (January 29, 1649). The House of Peers as well as the monarchy was abolished, and the government of the kingdom conducted by the Commons. Cromwell gradually assumed the supreme power, both military and civil, and after reducing the royalists by his victories in Ireland, Scotland, and England, and reviving by his vigorous foreign policy the lustre of the English name, finally, in December, 1653, caused himself to be named *Lord Protector*.

Cromwell's Protectorate.—Cromwell resolved to remain that which he was, the general of the victorious army, invested with the highest civil authority. For when once Parliament had stripped the monarchy of the military authority, the army displayed a tendency to submit no longer even to Parliament. The civil authority became dependent upon the military. Cromwell took it in hand and resolved to uphold it against all opposition. He deemed it essential to bring all the active forces in the country into obedience to his will.

Cromwell's foreign policy was as vigorous as his domestic. It was his hope, he used to say, to make the name of Englishman as much respected as ever that of Roman had been. He sought to obtain a footing on the Continent, both as a means of extending English trade and of supporting the Protestant inter-

est in Europe. For his own lifetime Cromwell was able to keep the power in his hands, but he could not hand it down to his successor.

Richard Cromwell succeeded his father (September 3, 1658). He was compelled by the army to dissolve the Parliament (April 22, 1659), and after a reign of eight months retired into private life (May, 1659). The state of anarchy which followed his resignation was terminated by General Monk, commander-in-chief in Scotland, who returned to London and established a parliament which recalled Charles II. (May, 1660).

Character of the English Restoration.—The government of the restoration, as it formed itself under the influence of Hyde,

who shortly became Lord Chancellor Clarendon, was an attempt to resuscitate the political theories of the minority of 1641. King and parliament were to work forever in harmony together. The king, being entirely dependent upon parliament for his revenue, would never be able to strike out a separate line of action; while the parliament, solemnly declaring that in no possible case was resistance to the king allowed, seemed to have placed it out of its own power to strike out a line of action independent of the king. In point of fact, this excellent system of mechanical balance would remain in working order just so long as king and parliament were united in feeling and policy, and not a moment longer.

THE FRENCH ASCENDENCY.

AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

Condition of France about the Middle of the Seventeenth Century.—In 1648 France was the dominant power in Christendom. The Thirty Years' War had broken the strength of all the nations around her. She alone profited by the general wreck. Her compact and fertile territory, the natural activity and enterprise of her people, and the rapid growth of her commerce and manufactures were sources of natural wealth which even its heavy taxation failed to check, and the policy which gathered all local power into the hands of the crown gave it, for the moment, an air of good government and a command over its internal resources which no other country could boast of. Now followed the most complete triumph of royalty, the most perfect acquiescence of a people in the sovereignty of one man, that had ever existed. Richelieu had subdued the nobles and the Protestants; and the Fronde ruined the parliament by showing what it was worth. This civil war of the Fronde was a last attempt of the Parliament of Paris to oppose the Court by armed resistance. It was especially directed against Cardinal Mazarin, who, after 1642, conducted the government. On his death (1661) only the king and the people were left standing in France; the latter lived in the former.

The War of Devolution.—The young Louis XIV. was perfectly suited for this magnificent part. His cold and dignified countenance reigned over France for fifty years with unimpaired majesty. When, in 1665, Philip IV. of Spain died, his son-in-law, Louis XIV., laid claim to Belgium and Burgundy on the

ground that, being the personal estates of the royal family of Spain, their descent ought to be regulated by the local "*droit de devolution*." The renunciation of her heritage which his wife, Maria Theresa, had made, was, Louis claimed, invalid, since the stipulated dowry had never been paid.

The French army entered (1667) Flanders, which was taken in two months. In January, 1668, the troops defiled through Champagne into Burgundy, and fell upon Franche Comté, which was entirely occupied in seventeen days. This rapid success alarmed Holland, which did not care to have the "great king" for a neighbor. By the exertions of Jan de Witt and Sir William Temple, England, Holland, and Sweden concluded the triple alliance (January 23, 1668), which forced Louis to acquiesce in the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. He was obliged to content himself with French Flanders, and to restore Franche Comté (the county of Burgundy) to Spain.

The War with Holland.—The course of the Dutch in these transactions had inflamed the hatred of Louis against them, a hatred made still stronger by the refuge given by the provinces to political writers who annoyed him with their abusive publications. To gain his purpose, the destruction or the humiliation of Holland, Louis secured the disruption of the triple alliance by buying, for a sum down, the alliance of England and Sweden. Suddenly (June, 1672) 100,000 men moved from France toward Holland, and overran Gelderland, Utrecht, and Over-Yssel without opposition. It was only by skill and desperate courage that the Dutch ships, under De Ruyter, held the English fleet, under the Duke of York, at bay

in an obstinate battle off the coast of Suffolk. Till almost the eve of the struggle the Dutch had been wrapt in a false security, which only broke down when the glare of the French watch-fires was seen from the walls of Amsterdam.

De Witt and his brother were murdered in a popular tumult, and their fall called William, the Prince of Orange, to the head of the republic, who armed against Louis, Spain, and Austria. He next separated England from France. Gradually, nearly the whole of Europe declared themselves against Louis XIV. (1674). It was then necessary to abandon the Dutch fortresses. As usual, compensation was made at the expense of Spain. Louis XIV. took Franche Comté. This second conquest had cost a little more trouble than the first (in 1668); but it was definitive. The two Burgundies were no more to be separated, and France was never again to lose her frontier of the Jura.

The struggle against Europe was continued until 1678 (Peace of Nimwegen). France emerged from it successfully, thanks to the genius of her great generals—Condé and Turenne. The Peace of Nimwegen was the culminating point of Louis XIV.'s glory. Louis had been supported in this war by Sweden, which was, as usual, in the French pay. When Frederick William, the Elector of Brandenburg, joined the imperial army on the Rhine, the French declared that they would pay the Swedes no more subsidies unless they compelled the elector to withdraw his force from the allies. The Swedes accordingly occupied Brandenburg, and allowed their troops every license of plunder and outrage. The elector was quietly abiding his time. Early in June, 1675, he suddenly went with his army to Magdeburg. By a rapid march the Swedes, cantoned on the right bank of the Havel, were surprised and beaten at Rathenow (June 25th). A few days after (28th), the elector gained a decisive victory, at *Fehr-bellin*, over the main body of the Swedish army, in consequence of which the invaders were compelled hastily to evacuate Brandenburg.

The Chambers of Réunion.—After the Peace of Nimwegen, Louis XIV. reigned over Europe. The proof of sovereignty is jurisdiction. He chose that other powers should recognize the decisions of his parliaments. He established *Chambers of Réunion* which should determine what were the dependencies of the acquired districts, that they might be united with them. One of those dependencies was the city of Strassburg in Alsace, which accordingly (1681) was declared to be a French town.

The Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

—The rights of the Protestants in France had been fixed by the Edict of Nantes, granted in 1598 by Henry IV. It certified to them admission to all employments, tolerated their general assemblies, and granted them places of safety, the principal of which was La Rochelle. It was revoked in 1685 by Louis XIV. This revocation interdicted, throughout the whole kingdom, the exercise of the reformed religion. Emigration on the part of the Protestants was prohibited, under pain of the galleys and confiscation of property.

More than a hundred thousand industrious families escaped, anyhow, from France; and the foreign nations which received them with open arms (England, Holland, Brandenburg) became enriched by their industry at the expense of their native country.

Devastation of the Palatinate.—Louis XIV. claimed, in the name of his sister-in-law, Charlotte Elizabeth, Duchess of Orleans, a portion of the Palatinate, invoking in this, as in the case of Flanders in 1665, civil against feudal rights. The League of Augsburg was formed to protest against this claim. Louis' answer was the frightful devastation of the Palatinate, by order of Louvois, executed by Melac (October, 1688). This, added to the countenance given by Louis to the exiled James II., changed the "League of Augsburg" into the "Grand Alliance."

The English Revolution.—When Charles II. died (February, 1685), his brother, James II., an avowed Catholic, ascended the throne. Setting his mind on obtaining liberty of worship and equality of civil rights for his fellow-Catholics, he issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, by which, of his own authority, he set aside the effect of all laws imposing restrictions on religion. For a time Englishmen calmly submitted; for, whatever James might be, the heir to the throne, his daughter Mary, was a confirmed Protestant. Her husband, William of Orange, was equally a confirmed Protestant, and was the head of the opposition on the Continent to Louis XIV. James was advanced in life, and it was certain that whatever he might do his successor would undo. But when, suddenly, it was announced that a Prince of Wales had been born, hope could no longer be entertained that all would go well as soon as James' life was at an end. Leading men of both the great parties invited the Prince of Orange to come to defend the liberties of England.

William landed at Torbay on November 5, 1688; on December 18th he was domiciled at St. James', his march having been interrupted only by one or two trifling skirmishes.



Meanwhile, James had fled. On December 28th the fugitive monarch arrived at St. Germain, and found in Louis XIV. a generous protector. On February 13, 1689, William and his consort Mary solemnly accepted the English crown, the parliament having previously voted (January 23d) that James, by withdrawing himself out of the kingdom, had *abdicated* the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In Scotland the authority of the new king was established after a slight attempt at resistance. Ireland, from the religion and disposition of the people, was naturally more favorable to James' cause, and it was here that, with French aid, he was enabled to dispute the ground with William. On March 12, 1689, James landed at Kinsale and found himself at the head of a large but ill-armed and ill-disciplined force, which (July 1, 1690) was completely defeated by William in the battle of the *Boyne*.

But this hostile act on the part of Louis (who had furnished James the means for the invasion of Ireland) caused William, as King of England, to declare war against France (May 17, 1689).

The War of the "Grand Alliance" against France (1689-1697).—The war was carried on for almost nine years with mighty efforts on all sides. The French gained three brilliant victories, LUXEMBOURG defeating the Dutch at *Fleurus* (June 30, 1690), *Steenkerk* (July 24, 1692), and *Neerwinden* (July 29, 1693). Savoy, the duke of which had joined the alliance against France, was conquered by a French army under General CATINAT. The exhausted state of his finances, and the diversion of the ambitious plans of Louis XIV. into a new channel by the immediate prospect of the death, without issue, of Charles II. of Spain, on the one side, and the mutual mistrust of the allies, on the other, hastened the conclusion of the Peace of Ryswick (September 20, 1697). By the terms of this peace Louis restored all his conquests and all the reunited territories, except Alsace, to their legitimate possessors, and recognized William III. as King of Great Britain. Thus terminated this vast war, in which the two parties had displayed, on land and sea, forces incomparably greater than modern Europe had ever seen before in motion. The armies acquired frightful proportions. France, in order to maintain herself against the coalition, had nearly doubled her military status since the war with Holland. The result of these gigantic efforts had been to her a barren honor. Alone against almost all Europe, she had continued to conquer; but she had conquered without increasing her power. For the first time, on the contrary,

since the accession of Richelieu, she had lost ground and receded in the work of her territorial completion. She found herself, in 1697, much within the limits of 1684, and returned to the limits of 1678, except that she had acquired a great defensive position, Strassburg, in exchange for offensive positions, which was advantageous to a true policy.

The Spanish Succession War (1702-1715).—After the Peace of Ryswick the question of the Spanish succession formed the chief occupation of all the European cabinets. Charles II., the last male descendant of the Emperor Charles V., was likely to die without issue.

The Castilians did not care particularly who, among the foreigners who claimed the succession, should mount the throne. Their paramount object was the integrity of the empire of which Castile was the head, and the prince who should appear to be most likely to preserve that integrity inviolated would have the best right to the allegiance of every true Castilian.

No man of sense, however, out of Castile, when he considered the nature of the inheritance and the situation of the claimants, could doubt that a partition was inevitable. Among those claimants three stood pre-eminent—the Dauphin, the Emperor Leopold, and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. If the question had been simply one of pedigree, the right of the Dauphin would have been incontestable. Louis XIV. was at once *son* of the elder daughter of Philip III. and husband of the elder daughter of Philip IV. His eldest son, the Dauphin, would, therefore, in the regular course of things, have been his uncle's successor. But the Infanta Maria Theresa, mother of the Dauphin, as well as Infanta Anne, mother of Louis XIV., had both, at the time of their marriages, renounced, for herself and her posterity, all pretensions to the Spanish crown. These solemn renunciations were, however, declared null and void by the parliament of Paris. The claim of the Emperor Leopold (besides being the representative of the younger branch of the Habsburgs) was derived from his mother, Mary Anne, younger daughter of Philip IV. and aunt of Charles II., and could not, therefore, if nearness of blood alone were to be regarded, come in competition with the claim of the Dauphin. But Leopold's mother had *expressly reserved her right of inheritance*.

The third claimant was a child of tender age—Joseph, son of the Elector of Bavaria. His mother, the Electress Marie Antoinette, was the only child of the Emperor Leopold by his first wife—Margaret, a younger sister of

Charles II. The electoral prince was therefore nearer in blood to the Spanish throne than his grandfather, the emperor, or than the sons whom the emperor had by his second wife. Infanta Margaret had, indeed, at the time of her marriage, renounced her rights; but this renunciation had been cancelled by the will of Philip IV., which had declared that, failing his issue male, Margaret and her posterity would be entitled to inherit his crown. With the view of anticipating a partition of the Spanish monarchy as contemplated by France, England, and Holland, Charles II., by will, declared the Electoral Prince of Bavaria universal heir to all his dominions. On the sudden death of the young prince (February 6, 1699), Charles signed a testament by which he declared Philip of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, as his successor, under the conditions that Spain should remain an undivided and independent monarchy; and that, if Philip should not consent to this stipulation, the crown should devolve on the Archduke Charles. Soon afterward (November 1, 1700), Charles II. died. His testament, after long deliberations, was accepted by Louis XIV., who thus annihilated all the treaties which he had entered into with the other European powers relative to the Spanish succession. William III. showed himself disposed to be satisfied, even with this new arrangement, provided Philip V. would renounce his title to the crown of France. James II., the exiled King of England, died just at this juncture at St. Germain (September 16, 1701), and left a son whom the parliament had excluded from the succession, and whose pretensions had been passed over in silence at the Peace of Ryswick. Louis XIV. acknowledged this pretender as James III., King of Great Britain and Ireland; by which he offended at the same time the national pride of the Englishmen and King William, who was all-powerful in Holland and was the soul of European policy. The Emperor Leopold now obtained assistance in his opposition to the claims of Philip V.; his second son, Charles, was declared King of Spain by the title of Charles III. Philip V. was acknowledged as king at Madrid and in Castile; Charles III. in Aragon, Catalonia, and in the Balearic Islands.

After the death of William III. (March 8, 1702) three men were at the head of the great alliance against France—Eugene, Prince of Savoy, imperial general; the Duke of Marlborough, English general; and A. Heinsius, grand pensionary (leading statesman) of Hol-

land. Prince Eugene and Marlborough had this great advantage in war, that they were su-

preme in their own countries; in the summer they fought, and in the winter they governed and negotiated. During the first campaigns the allies reaped no signal advantage over France, notwithstanding that she was fighting on all her frontiers and at home, against the world and against herself.

The Calvinists of the Cevennes had been in arms ever since 1702. Berwick and Villars were sent to subdue them. While Villars was away in the Cevennes the French army, which had invaded Germany under *Tallard*, suffered, near Blenheim, one of the most terrible defeats ever experienced by France. They had entered Germany incautiously, and were on the road to Vienna when Marlborough and Eugene cut them off. They were defeated between Höchstadt and Blindheim (*Blenheim*), with such terrible slaughter that of an army of sixty thousand men scarcely one-third reached the Rhine after the engagement (August 13, 1704). The whole of Bavaria was overrun by the conquerors, who treated the inhabitants with the utmost severity.

Villars arrived just in time to cover Lorraine, and prevent the invasion of France.

After the day of Blenheim the French army seemed to be finally deserted by that good fortune which had so long been their attendant. France was suffering dreadfully under the prejudices and passions of the king, and from the effects of his haughty and persecuting spirit. His finances were in the utmost state of exhaustion and disorder, and were no longer capable of furnishing clothes and provision for the army.

Louis was willing to accept peace on almost any conditions. He consented to relinquish the pretensions of his family to the Spanish crown, and to surrender Alsace; to banish the pretender, and to recognize the Protestant succession in England. But the allies, rendered insolent by success, demanded that he should send an army into Spain for the purpose of deposing his own grandson. On receiving this insult the king manifested a degree of perseverance that justified his claim to the surname of *the Great*, and the war was accordingly prolonged until a party hostile to the Duke of Marlborough acquired the ascendancy in England (August, 1710). The opposite party (the Tories) came into power, and, for the purpose of completing the ruin of Marlborough, they inclined Queen Anne toward peace. The death of the Emperor Joseph (1711) assisted them in their designs. The Archduke Charles, his brother, the competitor of Philip V., obtained the imperial crown, and incurred, in his turn, the reproach of aspiring to universal monarchy.

From this time England was no longer interested in supporting his claims to the throne of Spain, and agreed to a truce with France. The Grand Alliance was dissolved, and a congress was opened at Utrecht. Dissensions between the allies caused the conclusion of *separate treaties of peace*, which are comprehended under the name of the PEACE OF UTRECHT (April, 1713).

The grandson of Louis XIV. remained King of Spain, but Italy and Flanders, two of the brightest jewels in the crown of that monarchy, were alienated. Milan, Mantua, Naples, and the Spanish Netherlands were transferred to Charles, who, since his brother's death, was no longer called the Third of Spain, but the Sixth of the Emperors. Victor Amadeus, of Savoy, obtained Sicily, with the title of king. Philip V. was compelled to leave Gibraltar in possession of the English, this fortress having been surrendered by the Marquis de Salinas to eight thousand English and Dutch troops as they were conducting the Archduke Charles to Spain (1704).

This acquisition, so flattering to the national pride of the English, was really valuable, as it placed the entrance of the Mediterranean in their power, and rendered their friendship important to the northern nations who carry on trade in that sea.

Thus was at length terminated the War of the Spanish Succession, the greatest which had agitated Europe since the Crusades. Its effect was to modify considerably the situation of the different European states. Spain herself was apparently the greatest loser, having been deprived of her dominions in the Netherlands and Italy. But, on the other hand, she retained her American possessions, and the loss of her outlying territories seems rather to have strengthened her. At all events, it is certain that from this period she began slowly to re-

vive, and the decrease in her population, which had been gradually going on since the time of Emperor Charles V., was now arrested.

Austria acquired the greater part of those territories of which Spain was deprived; yet, as these acquisitions lay not contiguous to her, it may be doubted whether they were not rather a cause of weakness than of strength, by increasing her danger in a greater ratio than they multiplied her resources. France lost a portion of the frontier which she had formerly acquired, as well as her influence in Germany—the fear with which she had inspired the different states, driving them to unite themselves more closely with Austria. But these losses were nothing in comparison with her internal ills—the disorder of her finances, and the exhaustion of her population. After the Peace of Utrecht, France, though still one of the principal elements of the European system, could no longer be reckoned the dominant power. The influence and reputation of England, on the contrary, were much increased by the results of the war, in which she had proved herself a counterbalance to the power of France and Spain.

Neither Louis XIV. nor Queen Anne long survived the Peace of Utrecht. Anne died of apoplexy, August 1, 1714, a sovereign as remarkable for her nullity as her rival Louis was for engrossing the state in his own person. She was succeeded by the Elector of Hanover, with the title of George I. Louis XIV. survived Anne thirteen months. He died at Versailles, September 1, 1715. He had lived seventy-seven years, reigned seventy-two, governed fifty-four. It was the longest as well as the greatest reign in French history. France prospered under Louis XIV. as long as he continued the idea of Richelieu; it suffered, then declined, when he became unfaithful to it.

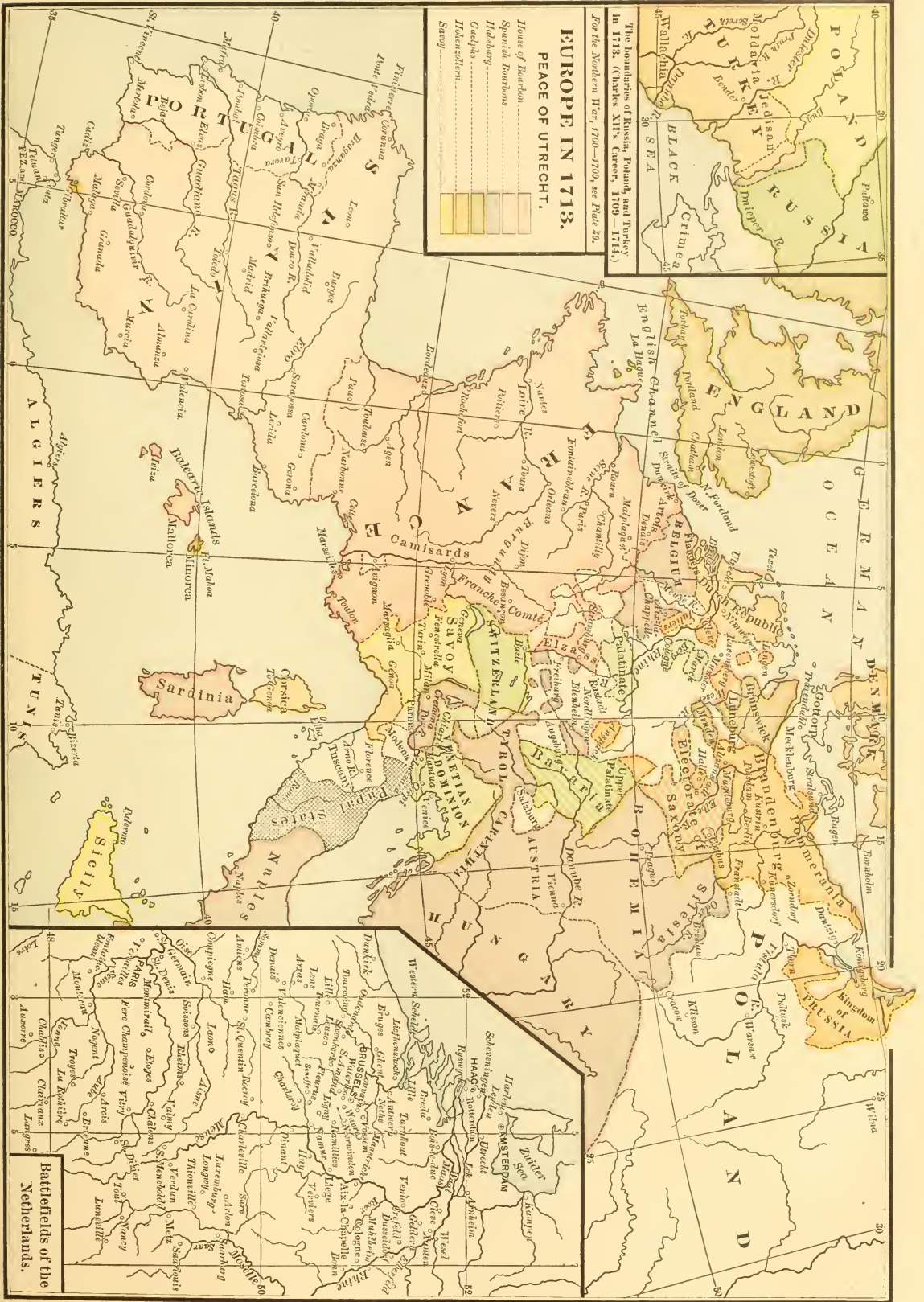
EASTERN EUROPE DURING THE FRENCH ASCENDENCY.

THE BIPONTINE FAMILY ON THE SWEDISH THRONE.

Position of Sweden.—During the wars of Louis XIV., in Western Europe, a series of wars scarcely less important in their effects, and even more extraordinary in their circumstances, had been going on in the north and east, involving Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Russia. At the beginning of this period Sweden was the great power in the north. The Peace of Westphalia had rewarded Swe-

den for the exertions of Gustavus Adolphus by ceding to her Pomerania and other districts on the Baltic, and giving her three votes in the German diet. The ambition of Sweden, being once aroused, now appeared under the first three kings of the Bipontine family to menace all neighboring states more than under Gustavus Adolphus himself.

Christina, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, had acceded to the Swedish crown in 1644. Within ten years her embarrassments had be-



come so great that she determined to throw the burden from her shoulders, and to transfer the crown to her cousin, Charles Gustavus, the son of the Count Palatine John Casimir, by Catherine, sister of Gustavus Adolphus. As King of Sweden he is known as Charles X.

The Swedish Succession War.—Charles X. found the kingdom in a state in which he must either declare a bankruptcy or else endeavor to free himself from his burdens by a war which should maintain itself. John Casimir II. of Poland, great-grandson of Gustavus Wasa, annoyed at seeing the Swedish crown, formerly worn by his ancestors, pass into a foreign house, yet without the power to assert his claim to it by arms, was foolish enough to afford Charles X. a pretext for war by protesting against his accession. Charles invaded Poland.

The rapidity with which his plan of invasion was executed placed the greater part of Poland at his disposal, and compelled John Casimir to take refuge in Silesia; while Charles, in conjunction with his ally, Frederick William (the great elector), defeated the Poles in the battle of Warsaw, after three days of hard fighting (July 18–20, 1656). A confederation having been formed about this time for the maintenance of the balance of power in the north of Europe, and war declared against Sweden by Frederick III., King of Denmark, Charles X. suddenly withdrew his forces from Poland, and, after rapidly overrunning the Danish continent, crossed the frozen Belt (January, 1658) and subdued the islands also. A peace was now concluded at Roeskilde, by which Denmark handed over to Sweden Schonen, Bornholm, and some other tracts. But Charles soon repented of the facility with which he had acceded to these conditions, and, landing unexpectedly on the coast of Seeland, laid siege to Copenhagen, which was enabled, by the assistance of a Dutch fleet, to resist successfully all the attacks of the Swedes. The death of the king and the minority of his son, Charles XI. (1660–1697), induced the Swedish Government to conclude a peace with Poland and her allies at Oliva.

THE TREATY OF OLIVA, which is as celebrated in the east of Europe as that of Westphalia in the west, was signed May 3, 1660. John Casimir renounced his claim to the Swedish crown, but was allowed to retain the title of King of Sweden, which, however, was not to be borne by his successors. Thus an end was put to the pretensions of the Polish Wasas.

All Livonia beyond the Dwina was ceded to Sweden, but Poland retained the southern and western districts. Frederick William's elevation to the rank of sovereign Duke of Prussia

(by the treaty of Welau, September 19, 1657), was ratified by Sweden and Poland.

THE HOUSE OF ROMANOFF ON THE RUSSIAN THRONE.

The Anarchy (1598–1613).—With Feodor ended, in 1598, the dynasty of Rurik in the main line. Feodor's successor was Boris Godunoff, his wife's brother. During his reign the agricultural population of Russia was bound to the soil. In ancient times the rural population was completely free, and every peasant might change his domicile on St. George's Day—that is to say, at the end of the agricultural year. The nobles were originally the *tenants for life* of the lands, which were granted as a reward for the service exacted from them. The revenues of the soil constituted their pay, and were to defray the expenses of their outfit and equipment. But the land had no value without the hands that cultivated it; the noble who was deserted by his peasants was ruined, and in no condition to serve the prince. In order that military service might be secured, it was necessary to hinder the emigration of the peasants. The interest of the noble, as well as the interest of the state, demanded that the liberty of coming and going should be restrained, that the noble should be armed with a formidable authority over the peasant, and that the laborer should be fixed to the soil. This was done most effectually by Boris Godunoff in 1601.

Interminable troubles, in the midst of which Tsar Boris died, in 1605, were the consequences. During these disturbances the Poles succeeded in placing a member of their royal house (Ladislaus, elder brother of John Casimir) on the throne of the Ruriks (1610). But in the latter part of 1611 the Russians rose like one man against the foreigners, and before 1612 not a single Pole remained on Russian soil. The country, however, by this time was a desert, and nearly all traces of cultivation had disappeared during the fifteen years of anarchy and confusion.

The Romanoffs (1613–1762).—When on the edge of the abyss of entire annihilation, the boyars at last recovered themselves so far as to proceed to the election of a new tsar. Their choice, as well as that of the clergy and the deputies of the towns, fell upon *Michaila Romanoff*, the young son of Filarete, Metropolitan of Rostoff, and grandson, by the mother's side, of Tsar Ivan the Terrible, who, on July 11, 1613, was crowned Tsar of the Russias.

Michaila ascended the throne of an humiliated empire; all the institutions of Ivan and all the useful regulations that Boris attempted

to introduce had vanished, and the influence of Poland and Sweden was predominant. The young tsar conducted his measures for the restoration of the power of his kingdom chiefly in a peaceable and imperceptible manner.

He was succeeded in 1645 by his son Alexis, then sixteen years of age. Russia had now recovered from her domestic troubles, and began to feel her strength. Alexis commenced those plans for civilizing the Russians, and enabling them to play a part in the affairs of Europe, which were afterward carried out by his son, Peter the Great. He partly organized his army on the European model, and introduced foreign artisans to instruct his people in handicraft and manufactures. His reign may be summed up in three facts: The reaction against Poland, and the union with Little Russia, or the Ukraine (*i.e.*, the boundary, for anciently the Ukraine formed a boundary between *Russia, Poland, Turkey, and Little Tartary*); the struggle between the empire and the Cossacks; and the first attempt at religious reform.

The Children of Tsar Alexis.—Tsar Alexis died, January 29, 1676, leaving by his first marriage two sons, Feodor and Ivan, and six daughters, and by his second marriage one son, Peter (afterward called the Great), and two daughters. Feodor III., who succeeded his father Alexis, reigned till his death (April, 1682), when he was succeeded by Ivan, who, however, from his weakness both of mind and body, reigned only nominally. This Ivan solemnly renounced the crown in favor of his half-brother Peter. But as he was only in his tenth year, his mother was declared regent during his minority. Sophia, third sister of Feodor, however, succeeded in seizing the reins of government; when she caused Ivan to be proclaimed Tsar jointly with Peter, and herself to be invested with the regency. Her plan was to remove Peter, and virtually to rule the state in the name of the idiotic Ivan. But these plans were defeated by the courage and conduct of Peter, who, finally, caused Sophia to be shut up in a convent. Thus did Peter, at the age of seventeen, become sole ruler of the Russian Empire (1689).

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE UNDER MOHAMMED IV. (1648-1687).

The Great Vizirs.—On the murder of Ibrahim I. (1648), his seven years old son, Mohammed IV., was raised to the throne. As no stronger foe than Venice attacked the Ottoman Empire, it lingered on through this period of renewed misery and weakness, until at length (1656) the Grand Vizirate was given to an aged

statesman, Mohammed Kiuprili, who deserves to be honored as the founder of a dynasty of ministers that raised Turkey, in spite of the deficiencies of her princes, once more to comparative power and prosperity and glory, and who long retarded, if they could not avert, the ultimate decline of the Ottoman Empire. The naval strength of the empire was revived; the Dardanelles were fortified; the Ottoman power beyond the Black Sea was strengthened by the erection of castles on the Dnieper and the Don, and though they were unable to take the town of Candia (the siege lasted twenty years, 1648-1669) the islands of Lemnos and Tenedos were recovered from the Venetians. His own authority in the empire was unshaken until the last hour of his life, and he obtained for his still more celebrated son, Ahmed Kiuprili, the succession to the Grand Vizirate, who was the real ruler of Turkey from 1661 to his death in 1676.

The Battle of St. Gotthard on the Raab (August 1, 1664).—In the spring of 1663, Kiuprili pressed forward with a vast army to Buda. The Emperor Leopold sought to arrest his march by negotiations; but the terms Kiuprili proposed (2,000,000 florins at once, and a yearly tribute) were too insulting to be entertained. Neuhäusel (near Vienna) capitulated to the Turks (September 24, 1663). Its fall was followed by that of several other fortresses, and it was the common opinion that in the following spring Kiuprili would appear before Vienna. Christendom for once united against the common enemy. The Empire, Louis XIV., and Sweden sent troops. The Pope, Spain, and the Italian princes, gave money. The imperial general, Montecuculi, was enabled to arrest the progress of the Turks by the memorable battle of St. Gotthard, a monastery on the Raab near the borders of Styria. Montecuculi having given the word "*Death or Victory*," the Christians charged without waiting to be attacked. The Turks were routed and thrown into a disorderly flight, in which more than ten thousand of them were slain or drowned in the Raab. The Emperor, instead of pursuing this advantage, seized the occasion to conclude a twenty years' truce with the Ottomans.

This battle was really of much greater moment than Lepanto. For, though Lepanto broke the spell of Turkish success, it really did no material harm to the Turkish power. But St. Gotthard was really the beginning of a long series of victories over the Turks, on the part both of the Emperor and of other Christian powers. Yet it was like Lepanto in this, that, as the victory of Lepanto was accompanied by the loss of Cyprus, so the victory of St. Gott-

hard was very soon followed by the loss of Crete (1669).

The last Territory Gained by the Turks (1679).—The rival claims of Poland, Russia, and Turkey to dominion over the Cossacks, led to wars both with Poland and Russia (1672–1676). In this, though the famous John Sobieski won several brilliant victories both before and after his election to the Polish crown, yet Poland lost the strong town of Kaminić, and the whole province of Podolia. This was the last time that the Turks won any large territory from any Christian power. The peace of Zurawna (October 27, 1676) confirmed them in the possession not only of Podolia, but of the greater part of the Ukraine.

Three days after this peace, Ahmed Kiuprili died. Though his defeat at St. Gotthard had fairly given rise to an opinion among the Ottoman ranks that their vizir was not born to be a general, his military services to the empire, for which he won Crete, Neuhausel, and Kaminić, were considerable; and no minister ever did more than he accomplished in repressing insurrection and disorder, in maintaining justice and good government, and in restoring the financial and military strength of his country.

The Second Siege of Vienna (1683).—The oppressive governments and the religious persecutions of the Austrian Cabinet in Hungary, had brought about a formidable insurrection, headed by that bitter enemy of the House of Habsburg, Count Tekeli. The insurgents were encouraged by the Turks from the beginning, and in 1681, Kara Mustapha, who was now Grand Vizir, determined to assist them openly. It was not, however, till 1683 that he appeared in Hungary, formed a junction with Tekeli, and began his march to Vienna. At the approach of the Turks the Viennese were seized with a terror amounting almost to despair. The Emperor quitted Vienna, and his departure was the signal for an almost universal flight. The Turks sat down before it on July 14th, and such were their numbers that their encampment is said to have contained more than one hundred thousand tents. Count Stahremberg with 70,000 men defended the city. At one time Vienna seemed beyond the reach of human aid. By the end of August its situation had become extremely critical. Provisions and ammunition began to fail, the garrison had lost 6,000 men, and numbers died every day by pestilence or by the hand of the enemy. Finally, on September 9th, Sobieski formed a junction with the German army under Max Emanuel of Bavaria, on the plain of Tulln. The united army contained 83,000 men. On

September 12th they attacked the 200,000 Turks, who, after a few hours of resistance, were completely routed.

Count Stahremberg received John Sobieski in the magnificent tent of the Grand Vizir, and greeted him as deliverer. They then entered Vienna, and in St. Stephen's Church gave thanks for their deliverance, when the preacher chose for his text, "*There was a man sent by God whose name was John.*" Sobieski pursued the retreating Turks, and terminated the campaign with the capture of Gran (October 27, 1683), which place had been almost a century and a half in the hands of the infidels.

Sultan Mohammed IV., enraged at these misfortunes, caused Kara Mustapha to be beheaded at Belgrade. His head was found at the capture of Belgrade in 1688, and is still preserved in the city arsenal at Vienna.

THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR (1700–1721).

Origin of the War.—While the south of Europe was engaged in the War of the Spanish Succession, which lasted twelve years, the north was excited by the family dissensions of the House of Holstein to a contest which was not terminated in less than twenty.

When Christian III., King of Denmark (1533–1559), had formerly divided the patrimonial inheritance with his brother Adolf, Duke of Holstein, the affairs of Holstein continued to be administered conjointly; but when the course of time, and difference of views and dispositions, had estranged the kings and dukes from each other, a multitude of disputes arose, which gave occasion to separate compacts, and to the final arrangement of articles for a general peace. Charles XII., King of Sweden (1697–1718) took the part of his friend and brother-in-law, the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, against Frederick IV., King of Denmark (1699–1730), who had no idea that the youthful warrior would be able to follow up his plans with decisive effect. These movements appeared to Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, to afford a favorable opportunity for the recovery of Livonia; to which he was invited by the malcontents of that province. His general and prime minister, Count Fleming, marched toward its confines; but he found the Swedish government forewarned of, and prepared for, his attack. Charles XII., with the vigor and rapidity of lightning, compelled the astonished King of Denmark to conclude a treaty of peace in Travendahl (August, 1700), by which he renounced his alliance with Russia and restored

to the Duke of Holstein all the territory of which he had been deprived by the Danes.

The Russo-Saxon War (1700-1706).—Charles XII., after his return from Seeland, had determined to lead his forces against the Saxons and Poles who had invaded Livonia, but his plans were altered by the news that Tsar Peter, at the head of 80,000 men, had invaded Ingria and laid siege to Narva. Charles immediately resolved to direct his march on that city. On November 27, 1700, Charles forced the reputed impregnable defile of Pyajokki, and on November 30th he destroyed the Russian army at Narva.

This Battle of Narva (November 30, 1700) is an epoch in the history of Russia. It opened the eyes of the Tsar to the defects of his army; and as he was not of a temper to be discouraged by a defeat, he regarded it as a useful lesson, and redoubled his efforts to bring his forces into a better condition.

Charles XII. marched from Narva against the Saxons and Poles, who were driven out of Livonia; conquered the greater part of Lithuania, and entering Poland in triumph, compelled the Poles to depose Augustus II. and elect in his room Stanislaus Lesczinsky (1704). Leaving Tsar Peter to extend his conquests on the shores of the Baltic, and found his new capital, St. Petersburg, within the frontiers of Sweden herself (1703), Charles XII. invaded Saxony, and compelled Augustus II. (in the peace of Altranstadt, 1706) to recognize Stanislaus Lesczinsky as King of Poland, and renounce his alliance with the Tsar.

The Battle of Pultawa (July 8, 1709).—All the fruits of these brilliant successes were lost through the obstinacy and foolhardiness of Charles. Hearing that Peter had entered Poland for the purpose of reinstating Augustus II., he quitted Saxony and drove the Russians out of Poland. Elated at his success, he conceived the design of dethroning Peter. Forcing his way through forests and morasses to the banks of the Dnieper, he crossed that river and was ready to advance on Moscow, when Mazeppa, Hetman of the Cossacks, induced him to go to the Ukraine and there incorporate his men with the Swedish army. When he came there, he found Mazeppa abandoned by his own troops. He persisted, however, obstinately in advancing, and found himself suddenly with his 15,000 men opposite 50,000 Russians. On July 8, 1709, he was attacked by the Russians at Pultawa, where he was so utterly defeated that he was compelled to cross the Dnieper with a few attendants, and take refuge in the Turkish city of Bender.

The victory of Pultawa may be said to form

an epoch in European history as well as in the Swedish and Russian annals. It put an end to the preponderance of Sweden in Northern Europe, occasioned the Grand Alliance to be renewed against her, and ultimately caused her to lose the conquests of Gustavus Adolphus and Charles X.

Russia, on the other hand, now began to step forward as a great European power. The penetrating mind of Peter saw at a glance the importance of this victory, which he commanded to be annually celebrated.

Closing Years of Charles XII.—Charles spent five years in Turkey (1709-1714), in the most obstinate violation of the rights of hospitality, and returned to his exhausted states, only to levy new wars against Prussia, Russia, and England. The King of Prussia had taken possession of Pomerania as far as the Peene; and George I. had bought Bremen and Verden from the Danes, who had conquered that territory during Charles' absence. During four years the hero-king contended gloriously, but in vain, against fortune, that now seemed resolved to punish him for the abuse of her favors. He had effected a reconciliation with the Tsar and was on the point of kindling the flames of war in Europe anew, when he fell before Friedrichshall (December 11, 1718) by a ball which, as there is strong ground for believing, was fired by the hand of one of his own attendants. He left no issue. Charles Frederick, Duke of Holstein, the son of his eldest sister, was in the camp, and thought himself so certain of succeeding to the crown that he made no movement to secure its possession. The Swedes, however, chose as their queen, Ulrica Eleonora, the younger sister of Charles. She married the hereditary Prince of Hesse, who was neither formidable nor odious to any of the neighboring powers. The queen transferred the government to Frederick, her husband; the diet confirmed the crown to them and their children; but in case they should die without natural heirs, the ancient right of election was reserved to the nation.

The great Northern War was finally ended by the peace of Nystadt (August 30, 1721), by which the Baltic provinces were finally ceded to Russia.

Peter the Great.—A few days after the signing of the Treaty of Nystadt, Peter wrote to his ambassador in Paris: "Apprenticeships commonly end in seven years; ours has lasted thrice as long; but, thank God, it is at last brought to the desired termination, as you will perceive from the copy of the treaty."

The apprenticeship was, indeed, long and arduous, but the results were in proportion. Having to contend with a state formidable

both by sea and land, Peter found it necessary to remodel his army, and to create a navy; and it was from the Swedes themselves, then the most warlike nation of Europe, that he at length learnt how to beat them—a fact which he was always ready to acknowledge. His triple apprenticeship could not have been spent in a better school; but it required qualities like his to reap the full advantage of it: a mind acute and large enough to perceive

his own deficiencies and those of his people; modest enough to learn how to remedy them; energetic enough to submit to any privations and dangers for that purpose. After this peace, the Senate and Synod conferred upon him the title of *Emperor of all the Russias*; and on his return to St. Petersburg in October, he was saluted by his nobles and people as *The Father of his Country*, PETER THE GREAT.

THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

THE TRIALS OF PRUSSIA.

Retrospect of Prussian History.—The Polish country of Prussia was held since 1226 by the Knights of the Teutonic Order, who, after extirpating the natives (Wends), repopled the country with settlers, mostly drawn from Northwest Germany.

These Prussians (Germans settled in Prussia), disgusted with the tyranny of the knights, placed themselves (1454) under the protection of Casimir IV., King of Poland, who, after a bloody war, forced the knights to submit to the Treaty of Thorn (1466), by means of which they lost Western Prussia, and became, for Eastern Prussia, vassals of Poland.

In 1525 the Grandmaster Albert of Hohenzollern (sprung from a side-branch of the Hohenzollerns in Brandenburg) turned Lutheran, dissolved the order, and, with the consent of his feudal superior, King Sigismund of Poland, became hereditary Duke of Eastern Prussia, but still in feudal subjection to Poland. In 1618, on the death of the second Prussian Duke Albert Frederick, his son-in-law, John Sigismund, the Elector of Brandenburg, succeeded him in his duchy.

Thus were united the German Province of Brandenburg and the Polish Province of Prussia.

John Sigismund's grandson, Frederick William (*The Great Elector*), founded the real greatness of the nascent state. A rapid, clear-eyed man, he dexterously used his compact, well-disciplined little army, amid the complications of that eventful period, so as to conserve the Brandenburg interests. He encouraged trade, made roads, and welcomed the Huguenots whom Louis XIV. drove from France. In the first year of the eighteenth century, his son received from Emperor Leopold I., in return for furnishing him troops

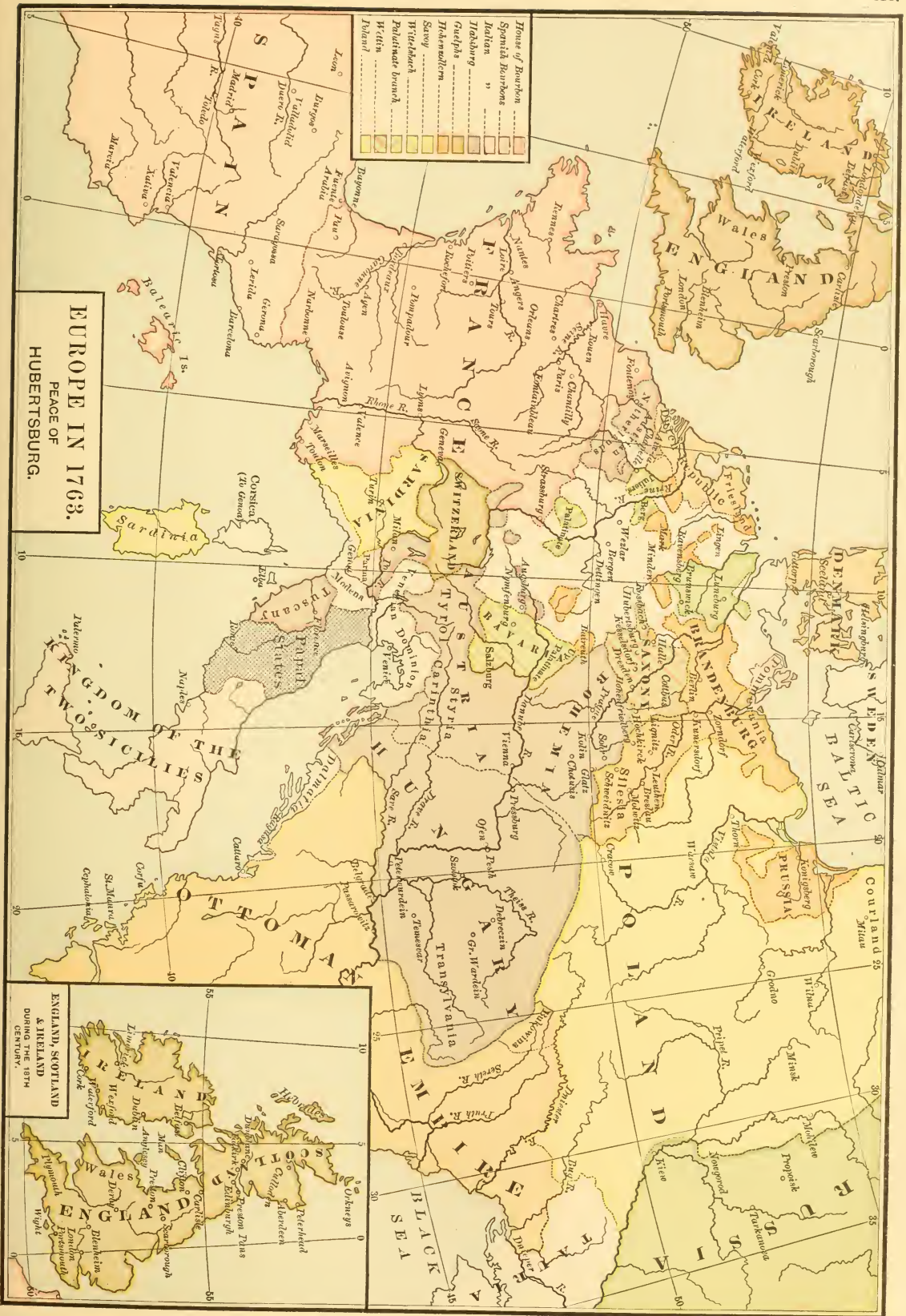
during the War of the Spanish Succession, permission to assume the title of King in Prussia (Frederick I.), and crowned *himself* at Königsberg (January 18, 1701). The grandson of this first King in Prussia was Frederick the Great, who succeeded his father, Frederick William I., in May, 1740.

The Austrian Succession War.—Within six months (October 20th) the male line of the Habsburgs became extinct, by the death of Emperor Charles VI., whose principal endeavor throughout his whole reign had been to secure the various lands which were united under the Austrian sceptre against division after his death. Hence, he established an order of succession under the name of the *Pragmatic Sanction*, by which his daughter Maria Theresa was left mistress of all the hereditary dominions of the House of Habsburg. This arrangement had been guaranteed by all Europe. Europe, however, soon rose, almost in its entirety (England excepted), to oppose it. France claimed *Belgium*, Spain *Milan*, Bavaria *Bohemia*, or rather the whole inheritance* and Frederick II. of Prussia, *Silesia*. But no one gained his end in this war except Frederick II., who obtained Silesia by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Although Maria Theresa had made peace with Frederick, she never for a moment forgot the loss of Silesia. Its recovery was the great object of her life. She toiled during many years to unite the whole civilized world

* The Elector of Bavaria, Charles Albert, appealed to two ancient instruments—the marriage contract (1546) between Albert V., Duke of Bavaria, and Anne, daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand I., and to the last will of the same emperor. He contended that by these two deeds the Austrian succession was assured to Anne and her descendants, in default of male heirs, the issue of the archdukes, her brother. Maria Theresa, however, asserted that the deeds spoke not of the extinction of the male issue of Ferdinand's sons, but of their *legitimate* issue.

The truth of the matter was that the marriage contract varied from the will. Maria Theresa's assertion being based on the will, Charles Albert's on the marriage contract.



against Frederick. She early succeeded in obtaining the adhesion of Russia. An ample share of spoil was pledged to the King of Poland, who readily promised the assistance of the Saxon forces. France was induced to join the coalition, and the example of France determined the conduct of Sweden, then completely subject to French influence.

The Seven Years' War.—Frederick, who had tools in every court, soon learned that he was to be assailed at once by France, Austria, Russia, Saxony, Sweden, and the Germanic body, and that the greater part of his dominions was to be portioned out among his enemies. He determined to strike the first blow. It was in the month of August, 1756, that the *Seven Years' War* commenced. He demanded of Maria Theresa a distinct explanation of her intentions. He received an answer at once haughty and evasive. In an instant the rich electorate of Saxony was overflowed by 67,000 Prussian troops. He defeated the Austrians at Lobositz (October 1st), and surrounding the Saxons, compelled them to surrender and enlist in his ranks (October 16th). The next year he beat the Austrians under the walls of Prague (May 6, 1757). But now misfortunes gathered fast. He met his first great defeat at Kollin (June 18th); the Russians invaded Prussia (August); the Swedes landed in Pomerania, and the French, after capturing the English army in Hanover (June), advanced toward Saxony.

Rallying his men and his courage, he turned upon his foes, and in the short space of thirty days he had extricated himself, with dazzling glory. First he annihilated (November 5, 1757) the French at *Rosbach*, and just a month later (December 5th) the Austrians at *Leuthen*. His genius set all the world to wondering. London was ablaze in his honor, and Pitt, the English prime minister, secured him a grant of \$3,500,000 per annum. The third campaign witnessed as signal a victory over the Russians at *Zorndorf* (August 25, 1758). The campaign of 1760 was one of the grandest efforts of his genius. Foiled in an attempt on Dresden he again saved Silesia by a victory at *Liegnitz* (August 15th), and hurled back an advance of Daun by a victory at *Torgau* (November 3d).

But even victories drained his strength. Men and money alike failed him. It was impossible for him to strike another great blow, and the ring of enemies closed slowly round him. The fall of Pitt (October, 1761), which was followed by a withdrawal of the English subsidy, drove Frederick almost to despair. It was, in fact, only his dogged resolution, and a sudden change in the policy of Russia, which followed on the death of his enemy, the

Tsarina Elizabeth (January 5, 1762), that enabled him at last to retire from the struggle without the loss of an inch of territory. The Peace of Hubertsburg, which made an end to the struggle, was signed February 15, 1763.

After seven years of carnage, during which 886,000 men had perished, everything was replaced, in Europe, precisely in the same state in which it was in 1748. The political results were, however, considerable. England, instead of France, began to be regarded as the leading power, and the predominance of the *five great states* was henceforth established by the success of Prussia. This last result was wholly due to the genius and enterprise of Frederick II., who in the conduct of the war displayed qualities which procured for him, from his admirers, the appellation of *the Great*.

THE PARTITION OF POLAND.

Retrospect of Polish History.—The Slavonic tribes occupying the districts around the central and lower Oder and Vistula called themselves Lechs, and their country Poland, *i.e.*, the Plain. In the tenth century a considerable power arose for the first time in these regions, having its centre at Gnesen, the abiding metropolitan city of Poland. Under Boleslaf (1000 A.D.) a great empire was formed, stretching from the Elbe to the Dnieper, and from the shores of the Baltic to the Carpathians.

Constant divisions among members of the ruling family, the Piasts, did not destroy its national unity and independence. A Polish State always lived on, and from the end of the thirteenth century it took its place as an important European kingdom, holding a distinctive position as the one Slavonic power at once attached to the Western Church and independent of the Western Empire. Casimir the Great (1333–1370), who had added Red Russia, Podolia, and Volhynia to his realm, having no children, resolved to leave his crown to his nephew Louis, son of Charles Robert, the Angevin king of Hungary. With this view, he summoned a national assembly at Cracow, which approved the choice he had made.

This proceeding, however, enabled the Polish nobles to interfere with the succession of the crown and to render it elective, like that of Hungary and Bohemia, so that the Polish State became a sort of aristocratic republic. On the death of Louis, in 1382, his daughter Hedwig was elected queen, whose marriage with Jagiello, Grand Duke of Lithuania, brought about the union of Poland and Lithuania as distinct states under a common sovereign. Jagiello, who received at his baptism the name of Wladislaus, reigned till 1434; and

it was he who, in order to obtain a subsidy from the nobles, first established the Polish Diet. This Diet, chosen only by the nobles, possessed the whole power of the government: it elected the king, made the laws, and even took a part in the executive administration. Notwithstanding that the Diet possessed such extensive powers, it lay, since 1632, at the mercy of any single member, who, by virtue of what was called the *Liberum Veto*, might annul its proceedings.

The First Division of Poland.—In 1764 the Diet elected Stanislaus Poniatowsky to the throne, after he had promised to restore the non-Catholics to all civil rights. When he wanted to carry out his promise the fanaticism of the populace was excited by the priests, who gave out that King Stanislaus intended to abolish Catholicism. In March, 1768, a *Confederation* was formed by the Polish Catholics in the town of Bar, in Podolia, for the purpose of dethroning the king and restoring Polish freedom. Catharine II. of Russia, disgusted with the continual civil war in Poland, drew from this event a fresh pretext for hostility against the Polish republic. Knowing that Russia would not be suffered to aggrandize herself alone, and without the participation of Austria and Prussia, she made secret treaties with both. Frederick the Great now occupied Polish (Western) Prussia, Emperor Joseph II. marched into Southern Poland, and 30,000 Russians occupied the central provinces. Pulawski, the leader of the *Confederation*, when he heard of the union of the three powers, retired from a hopeless contest, and exhorted its followers to reserve themselves for better times. The powers now proceeded to divide the booty: Russia obtained 2,500 square miles, with 1,500,000 souls; Austria, 1,300 square miles, with 2,500,000 souls, and Prussia 700 square miles, with a population of about eight hundred thousand souls. Although the Prussian share was smaller than the others, yet it was very valuable to Frederick, because it joined his Prussian kingdom to the main body of the monarchy. The population, too, was richer and more commercial. The Diet of April, 1773, confirmed this first partition. Nearly all the members accepted bribes. In that Diet the ruin of Poland was consummated by its own children, amid every kind of luxury, frivolity, and profligacy.

Second Partition of Poland.—Under Russian auspices a new constitution was made for the curtailed realm, which was promul-

gated in 1775. When an attempt was made to set aside the constitution in 1792, one Polish party called in the help of Russia. A Russian army, 100,000 strong, invaded Poland. Brave but futile resistance was made by Kosciusko, who was defeated at Dubienka. The king joined the confederacy of Targowitz; the new constitution was repealed. Russia and Prussia issued a common proclamation which announced to the Poles that Russia and her former allies had already come to an understanding to preserve the peace of Eastern Europe by a new partition of Poland.

At the Diet of Grodno the consent of the nation to the new cessions was extorted (June, 1793). Prussia got this time more than one thousand square miles of territory, peopled by more than three and a half million souls; Russia got 4,553 square miles, and a population of more than three million souls. Several of the Polish patriots retired now into Saxony. But they were still animated with the hope of rescuing their country from oppression.

Third Partition of Poland.—Kosciusko, hearing of the increasing discontent, hastened to Cracow, where he was proclaimed generalissimo (March 24th). Warsaw now rose and massacred every Russian they could find (April 16th). Similar scenes took place at Wilna and Grodno. The entire Polish army declared for Kosciusko, who had been invested with dictatorial power. Prussian, Austrian, and Russian troops now poured from all sides into Poland. Kosciusko and his Poles made an heroic resistance. But the valor of these patriots, armed with scythes, hatchets, and hammers, served only to increase the horror of their country's ruin. In his intrenched camp before Warsaw, Kosciusko for a time held his swarming foes at bay. But finally (October 10th, at Maciejowice) he was captured, and a month later Suvaroff entered Warsaw. Russia, Austria, and Prussia now quietly divided their blood-stained prey, and Poland was blotted out from the map of Europe. (See Plate XLIX.) The powers acquired by the three partitions about the following increase of territory: Russia, 181,000 square miles, with 6,000,000 inhabitants; Austria, 45,000 square miles, with 3,700,000 inhabitants, and Prussia, 57,000 square miles, with 2,500,000 inhabitants. It is important to remember that the three partitions gave no part of the original Polish realm to Russia. It simply annexed Lithuania, more than half the territory of which had been originally Russian soil. The real Polish realm fell to the lot of Prussia.

THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD.

THE FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC.

The Downfall of the French Monarchy.

—During the second half of the eighteenth century, France occupied an enviable position in Europe. Its government, though despotic, was less oppressive and more influenced by public opinion than that of any other country. Its general wealth, though the nobles enjoyed exemption from any contribution to the public burdens, was large and pretty evenly diffused. Its administration of justice was admirable. But its government suffered from serious financial embarrassments, from which it could only free itself by an appeal to the country at large. Louis XVI. resolved to summon the States-General, which had not met since 1614, and to appeal to the nobles to waive their immunity from taxation.

They no sooner met at Versailles (May, 1789) than the whole fabric began to crumble. A rising in Paris destroyed the Bastille (July 14, 1789), and its destruction was taken for the dawn of a new era of constitutional freedom in France and through Europe. It proved to be the beginning of frightful anarchy.

The Constituent Assembly (1789-1791).

—During about six years the revolution ran through *three stages*, to the extreme of a democratic republic.

On June 17, 1789, upon the motion of Abbé Sieyès, the representatives of the third estate in the States-General assumed the title of the Constituent Assembly, and invited the nobles and clergy to join them. Many of the clergy and some of the nobles did join them. But a rising of the peasants against their feudal lords in the southeastern provinces led a majority of the nobles to emigrate.

The Constituent Assembly presented, on September 3, 1791, the *Act of the Constitution* to the king. Louis XVI. (who had succeeded his grandfather Louis XV. in 1774) notified his acceptance of it in a letter addressed to the Assembly (September 13th), and on the next day he came to confirm it with an oath.

This constitution, which had raised so many expectations, lasted hardly a year. Its most lasting merit was the destruction of ancient abuses. It had established uniformity of taxation and vested the power of the purse in the representatives of the people. Its aim had been to establish an hereditary constitutional monarchy, but they had stripped the king of

his prerogatives, deprived him of the support of the clergy and nobles, placed him face to face with a wild democracy, and had deprived him of such executive power as might control its excesses. The *Act of the Constitution* having been proclaimed with great pomp (September 18th), the Constituent Assembly declared its labors terminated and the revolution accomplished. One of their last acts had been to declare themselves ineligible to the legislature (self-denying ordinance).

The Legislative Assembly (October 1, 1791, to September 21, 1792).—This assembly was far from being composed of such distinguished men as had sat in the Constituent Assembly. France had exhausted her best talent, and, by the self-denying ordinance, had also deprived herself of the services of men who had acquired some political experience. The new deputies were mostly young men of the middle class. They divided into four well-defined parties: the *Feuillants*, so called from their place of meeting—the convent of the Feuillants—who were the defenders of the constitutional monarchy; the *Centre*, the friends of the new constitution; the *Girondists* (originally formed by the deputies of the Gironde), who were moderate republicans; the left party was formed by the *Cordeliers* (so called from their place of meeting in the church of the barefooted friars), who were fanatical democrats. The Gironde forced the king (April, 1792) to form a cabinet of Girondists, which compelled him to declare war against Francis II., "*King of Hungary and Bohemia*." Three armies were sent into the field, but the fortune of war was against the French, which increased the revolutionary excitement at Paris and caused the dismissal of the Girondist cabinet (June 13th). A week later the king was attacked by an infuriated mob in the palace at the Tuileries. The rapid advance of the enemy, and the publication of a threatening manifesto by the Duke of Brunswick, so alarmed and irritated the populace that they besieged the king a second time (August 10th) in the Tuileries, with the avowed intention of compelling him to abdicate.

Louis now threw himself into the arms of the National Assembly, which passed a decree suspending the royal authority, agreed to summon a national convention for the settlement of the future constitution, and committed the king and his family to the Temple (August

13, 1792). Soon after the Legislative Assembly was itself dissolved to make room for a national convention.

The National Convention (September, 1792, to October, 1795).—The National Convention, charged with the drawing up of a new constitution, assembled September 21, 1792. It was divided into a right, left, and centre party. In each assembly the right represented the conservative element, the left the progressive party. The left of the constituent was the right of the legislative, and the left of the legislative was at first the right of the convention. The Girondists, although in appearance in the majority, had placed themselves in a false position, having gone too far for the Constitutionals and not far enough for the Jacobins. Opposite to them were the real masters of the convention, the *Mountain*, so-called from the members of it occupying the highest benches on the left. Their strength lay not in their number but in their being supported by the Jacobin Club, the *Commune*, and consequently the Parisian mob, then the supreme power in the State. Between the Gironde and the Mountain, voting sometimes with one, sometimes with the other, was seated the *Plain* or the *Marsh* (*Marais*), consisting principally of new members without settled political connections. The convention on the very first day it assembled (September 21st) decreed the abolition of royalty and declared France a republic.

September 22d was the first day of the year one, of the French Republic.

In spite of the resistance offered by the Girondists the king was compelled to appear at the bar of the National Convention, who acted at once as judges and accusers. He was condemned on December 26, 1792, of "*having conspired against the liberty of the nation and endangering the public safety*," and on January 21, 1793, Louis XVI. was beheaded. On the following March 10th the revolutionary tribunal was set up for the speedier trial of State offences, and on May 27th the *Committee of Public Safety*, of which Marat was president, became the executive ministry. Two months afterward he was assassinated by Charlotte Corday.

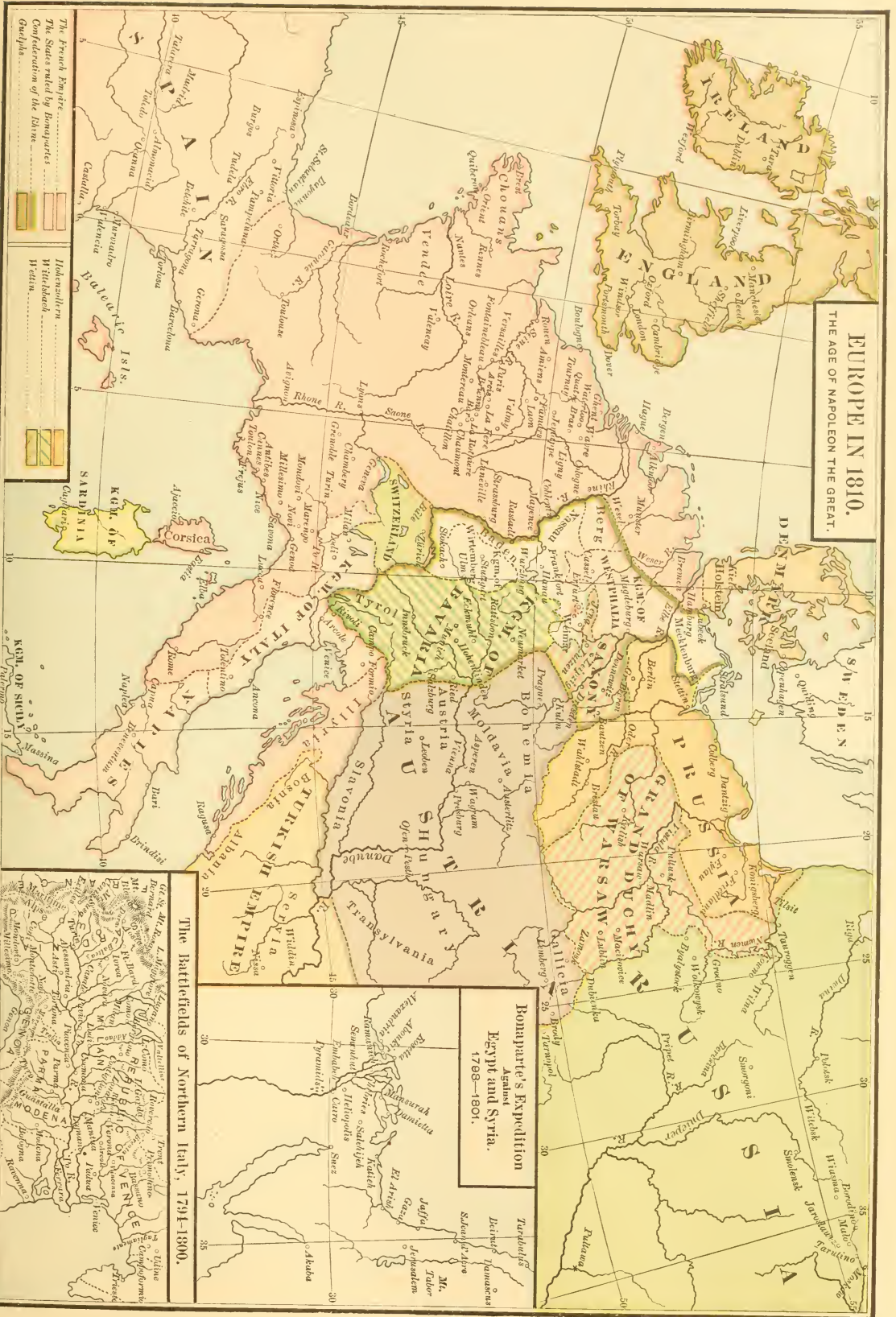
The Reign of Terror (1793-1794).—The principal Girondists were arrested on June 2d, and the Reign of Terror began. Marie Antoinette was guillotined on October 16th, the Girondists on the 31st, and Madame Elizabeth (the sister of Louis XVI.) before the end of the year.

As the revolution proceeded, parties continued to separate. The Gironde had supplanted the Constitutionals, and had in its turn been overthrown by the Mountain. In

the democratic residuum still left we find three distinct factions. First, the ultra-democrats led by HÉBERT, who were for terror in all its wildest excesses. In contradistinction to this faction had sprung up "*the party of Mercy*," at the head of which were CAMILLE DESMOULINS and DANTON. Between these two parties stood that of ROBESPIERRE, ST. JUST, and COUTHON, who desired a sort of political and regulated terror, which they disguised under the name of *justice*. This last party was sufficiently powerful to cause the destruction of all its opponents. First it demolished the Hébertists and next the Dantonists. Then Robespierre set himself to work to establish some semblance of religion and order, but the means that he employed were more arbitrary than ever, and the scaffolds ran with blood. Some of his own followers discovered that their names were on the list of the condemned, and in their turn they conspired, and stirred up the convention against Robespierre, who was charged with conspiring against the republic, arrested, condemned without being heard in his own defence, and guillotined with twenty-two of his adherents on July 28, 1794.

The Directory (1795-1799).—After the fall of Robespierre a new constitution was drawn up; and the DIRECTORY, a council of five, assumed the conduct of the government (August 22, 1795). The legislative power was vested in two chambers; a lower one of 500 members, called the Council of *Five Hundred*, and an upper one of 250 members, called the Council of the ANCIENTS. By this arrangement measures were at least submitted to more mature deliberation, and the danger of being carried away by sudden impulses was obviated. The Ancients, except in urgent cases, were not to decide till a bill had been read three times, with an interval of at least five days between each reading. A third part of each Council was to be replaced every year by new members, and two-thirds of each of the new chambers were to be elected from among the members of the late convention. The royalists, who had returned after the fall of Robespierre, were against this last proviso, and it was soon discovered that an appeal to force was contemplated. The convention, still in session, could rely upon the regular army. Troops were moved up to Paris, and the command of them was given to Barras, who demanded as his second an officer, struck from the army list, Napoleon Bonaparte, who had already earned some distinction by raising the siege of Toulon in 1793.

Barras entrusted the direction of the military operations against the insurgents to Bonaparte, who acted with promptitude and decis-



ion, crushed the revolt by the bloody victory of the thirteenth Vendemiaire (October 5, 1795). The convention used its victory with moderation, and dissolved three weeks afterward (October 26th), when the five directors took the reins of government in their hands.

Condition of France in 1795.—In 1795, after six years of revolution, throne and altar, arts and manufactures had been destroyed; the public credit was utterly annihilated, and no taxes to collect; all the main roads, canals, bridges, etc., were in a deplorable state of dilapidation. The armies were not only unpaid, but without clothing or bread. The war on the Rhine had terminated in disaster. The army of Italy had achieved little beyond some obscure successes. It was the appointment of Napoleon Bonaparte to the command of the latter force, in the spring of 1796, that first brought a change for the better.

General Bonaparte.—In a brilliant campaign (1796-97) he forced Austria to make peace at Campo Formio (October 17, 1797), which secured to France the Ionian Islands, Venice, the Netherlands, and the left bank of the Rhine. On his return from Italy, Bonaparte laid before the French Government (the Directory) a plan for the conquest and occupation of Egypt as a preliminary to attack the English in India. The conquest of Egypt proved as easy and complete as Bonaparte had hoped. But the destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir by Nelson (August 1, 1798), cut off all communication between France and Bonaparte's army; and his hopes of making Egypt a starting-point for the conquest of India fell at a blow. But foiled as were his dreams of Indian conquest, his daring genius plunged into wider projects. He conceived the design of the conquest of Syria. Gaza was taken, Jaffa stormed, and Acre, the key of Syria, besieged. But it was stubbornly held by the Turks, and, after a heavy loss by sword and plague, Bonaparte was forced to fall back upon Egypt, which, indeed, was more than ever his own, for a Turkish force which landed near Alexandria was cut to pieces by him in the battle of *Aboukir* (July 25, 1799). But the news of defeat at home, and the certainty that all wider hopes in the East were at an end, induced him to leave his army (August 22d). His arrival in Paris (October 14th) was the sign for a change in the government.

Consul Bonaparte.—The directors were divided among themselves and a revolution put an end to their power (November 10th).

Three consuls took the place of the five Directors; but, under the name of First Consul, Bonaparte became in effect sole ruler of the country. He found France surrounded on all

sides by bitter enemies, bent on its destruction. Crossing the St. Bernard with his army, he gained (June 14, 1800) such a victory, at *Marengo*, that they were glad to make peace with the republic (Lunéville, February 19, 1801—Amiens, March, 1802).

But the peace brought no rest to England. The new social vigor the revolution had given to France, through the abolition of privileges and the creation of a new middle class on the ruins of the clergy and the nobles, still lived on. Bonaparte, by his restoration of the church, his recall of the exiles, and the economy and wise administration which distinguished his rule, was enabled to seize this national vigor for the furtherance of his own plans. Soon it became plain that a struggle between England and France was inevitable, and in May, 1803, the armaments preparing in the French ports hastened the formal declaration of war. An invasion of England was planned on a gigantic scale. A camp of 100,000 men was formed at Boulogne.

THE FIRST EMPIRE.

The Conquest of Western Europe.—The invasion seemed imminent, when Napoleon, who, on May 18, 1804, had been proclaimed emperor, appeared personally in the camp. To divert this danger, Pitt had formed an alliance with Russia, Austria, and Sweden. This forced Napoleon to abandon the dream of invading England, to meet the coalition in his rear, and swinging round his forces on the Danube, he forced an Austrian army to a shameful capitulation in Ulm (October 17, 1805). From Ulm he marched on Vienna and crushed the combined armies of Austria and Russia at Austerlitz (December 2, 1805). Prussia, which had played a double game during the war, was next attacked. The decisive victories of Jena and Auerstädt (October 4, 1806) laid it at Napoleon's feet, who (October 27th) entered Berlin. From Berlin he marched to Eastern Prussia, and though checked in the winter by the Russian forces in the hard-fought battle of Eylau (February, 1807), his victory of Friedland (June 14) brought Alexander of Russia to consent to the peace of Tilsit (July 7, 1807). Prussia had to surrender its whole Polish territory, save West Prussia. The rest of the Prussian share of Poland was formed into the *Duchy of Warsaw*.

Napoleon was now absolutely master of Western Europe. Prussia was occupied by French troops. Holland was changed into a monarchy and its crown given to his brother Louis. Another brother, Jerome, became King of Westphalia; a third brother, Joseph, was made King of Naples, while the rest of

Italy and even Rome itself was annexed to the French Empire. On the refusal of Portugal to join the continental system (the closure of the continent to British trade), France and Spain agreed to divide Portugal between them; and the reigning house of Braganza fled helplessly from Lisbon to a refuge in Brazil. But the seizure of Portugal was only meant as a prelude to the seizure of Spain.

The Spanish Troubles.—In the beginning of the nineteenth century Spain had sunk to the very lowest place among the kingdoms of Europe, with all its resources exhausted, and its government a grim commentary on the national disorder and ruin.

The northern half of the peninsula was nothing but an agglomeration of rival nationalities and unaffiliated races, and the southern half a conquered territory, suffering under the grim tyranny of the fanatical Castilians.

An imbecile king (CHARLES IV.) occupied the throne. The queen (LOUISA) ruled the land through her favorite GODOY, *Prince of the Peace*, whose government at length raised up against him a party determined to rescue the Spanish nation from the disgrace of being ruled by such a rascal. A little knot of distinguished persons attached themselves to the heir to the crown, FERDINAND, *Prince of the Asturias*, and the court became divided into two parties—that of the *Prince of the Asturias* and the *Prince of the Peace*. Both parties appealed to the Emperor Napoleon, who, in an unfortunate hour for France and himself, resolved to expel the Bourbons from Spain, and to substitute a dynasty of his own for the effete and incapable existing rulers.

This audacious project seemed at first marvellously seconded by fortune. In the last months of 1807 the Peninsula was flooded with French soldiers under JUNOT and MURAT who easily overcame all resistance. But a sudden burst of national indignation against Godoy, the supporter of the French alliance, drove the aged Charles IV. from the throne and FERDINAND VII. was proclaimed at Aranjuez as the representative of Spanish patriotism, and pledged to oppose the detested foreigners. In this even Napoleon thought he saw the means of accomplishing his designs.

Charles IV. and his son Ferdinand were drawn to Bayonne (May, 1808), and forced to resign their claims to the Spanish crown, while the French army entered Madrid and proclaimed Joseph Bonaparte (since 1806 King of Naples) King of Spain; Napoleon's brother-in-law, Murat (since 1806 grand-duke of Berg), taking the throne of Naples instead of Joseph.

The new king had hardly entered Madrid,

when Spain rose as one man against the stranger. The English at once sent troops under Sir John Moore and Sir Arthur Wellesley to aid the Spaniards.

Napoleon hastened in person to Spain with 250,000 men, advanced to Madrid, and with *Soult* drove the English from Spain (Battle of Corunna, January 16, 1809).

But the English force at Lisbon, which had already prepared to leave Portugal, was reinforced with 13,000 fresh troops and placed under command of Sir Arthur Wellesley.

The Battle of Wagram.—At this critical moment the best of the French troops with the emperor himself were drawn from the Peninsula to the Danube. English gold had roused Austria to a renewal of the struggle. But Austria was driven to sue for peace by a decisive victory of Napoleon at Wagram (July 5, 1809). After the peace of Schönbrunn (October 14, 1809), which seemed to have consolidated his power, Napoleon resolved to strengthen and perpetuate his dynasty by marrying Maria Louisa, the daughter of Emperor Francis II. (March 9, 1810).

Napoleon as Law-giver.—The peace of Schönbrunn had brought the Napoleonic Empire to its widest bounds. The fabric of this sovereignty was raised upon the ruins of all that was obsolete and forceless upon the continent; the benefits as well as the wrongs of his supremacy were now seen in their widest operations.

Western Europe received in the Code Napoleon a law, which to an extent hitherto unknown in Europe, brought social justice into the daily affairs of life. The privileges of the noble, the feudal burdens of the peasant, the monopolies of the guilds passed away, in most instances forever. The comfort and improvement of mankind were vindicated as the true aim of property by the abolition of the devices which convert the soil into an instrument of family pride, and by the enforcement of a fair division of inheritances among the children of the possessors.

Legal process, both civil and criminal, was brought within the comprehension of ordinary citizens and submitted to the test of publicity. The price which was paid for all this was the suppression of every vestige of liberty, the conscription, and the continental blockade, the real political importance of which lay in the hostility which it excited between France and Russia.

The Russian Campaign of 1812.—Tsar Alexander I. of Russia (1801–1825), who had attached himself to Napoleon's commercial system in 1807, withdrew from it in 1810, when the harbors of Russia were opened to all ships

bearing a neutral flag, and a duty was imposed upon many of the products of France. It was scarcely less than a direct challenge to Napoleon, who imagined that the command of the European coast line would enable him to exhaust his bitter enemy, England; and he was prepared to risk a war with Russia rather than permit it to frustrate his long-cherished hopes. In the spring of 1811 Napoleon had determined upon war. On June 24, 1812, he crossed the Niemen with an army of nearly six hundred thousand men. The Russians retreated before him so as to lure him into the heart of the country, until they reached the plain between Smolensk and Moscow, on which, September 7th, the battle of Borodino was fought. The Russians retired upon Moscow, closely followed by Napoleon, who, on the morning of the 14th, first beheld its minarets and cupolas. The cry of "Moscow! Moscow!" burst from the ranks as the army entered the famous city—but found it a city of the dead, for its three hundred thousand inhabitants had left with the Russian troops, after making preparations for burning it to the ground. Scarcely three days had passed before fire burst out in all directions. The invaders had to retreat under unparalleled hardships.

Among the most horrible incidents was the passage of the Beresina (November 27th), with the Russians in pursuit.

Rise of Europe against Napoleon.—In Poland Napoleon received news of a conspiracy at home; he hastened to Paris. His presence, the frankness with which he told the tale of the unparalleled sufferings and heroic endurance of his army, restored in a measure his waning popularity. His first act was to raise a new army, for the disastrous campaign was turning his allies into enemies. Soon he found himself opposed by a united Europe. The final struggle took place at Leipsic (October 18, 1813). Napoleon was beaten and forced to fall back across the Rhine. He was soon followed by the allies. On the last day of 1813 they crossed the Rhine. For two months more Napoleon maintained a wonderful struggle with a handful of raw conscripts against the overwhelming numbers of his enemies. The campaign closed (March 31st) with the surrender of Paris, and the submission of the capital was at once followed by the abdication of the emperor (April 6th) and the return of the Bourbons. Napoleon was banished with the empty title of emperor to Elba (May 4, 1814).

The Hundred Days.—Within nine months, however, he returned to France, landing on the coast near Cannes. After twenty days he was again installed in the Tuileries. Then followed the *reign of a hundred days*. Napoleon

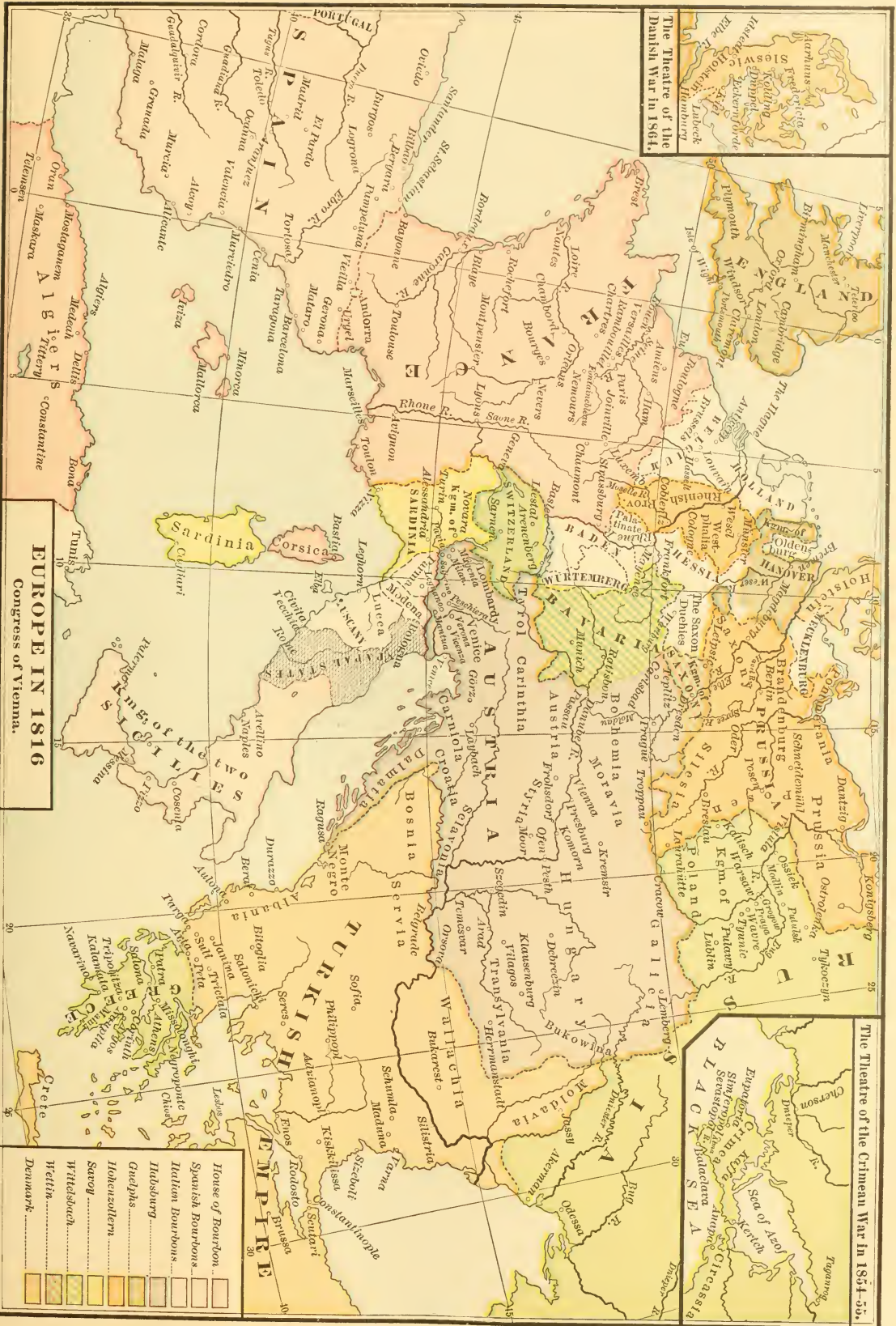
found his position one of extreme peril and difficulty. He granted liberal institutions to France, and endeavored once more to reorganize the army. He resolved to anticipate the movements of the allies by concentrating his troops in Belgium, and destroying the English and Prussian armies before the Austrians and Russians had time to come up. He crossed the frontier on June 14th, and wrested Ligny from the Prussians on the 16th, while Wellington prevented Ney from gaining the position of Quatre Bras, and on the 17th established himself near the village of Waterloo, for the purpose of covering Brussels. On the following day was fought the battle of Waterloo, where the great emperor was finally defeated. Once more he resigned his crown (June 22d), and then surrendered himself to the British Government. He was conveyed on board a British frigate to the island of St. Helena, where he passed the remainder of his days, and died at the age of fifty-two, on May 5, 1821.

THE RESTORATION.

The Regulation of Europe.—The league of the older monarchies had proved stronger in the end than the genius and the ambition of a single man. The overthrow of Napoleon placed the supreme power in Europe in the hands of a *Pentarchy of the Great Powers*, consisting of the five powers which had concluded the Peace of Paris, and which, to avoid quarrels about rank, were henceforward named in the order of the French alphabet—Autriche, France, Grande-Bretagne, Prusse, Russie. For special cases this union was joined by Spain, Portugal, and Sweden.

These *eight* powers, after long negotiations, finally signed the *Act of the Congress of Vienna*, in which the Napoleonic booty was divided among the conquerors. Austria received, besides her ancient domain of Milan, Venice, as a Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Genoa was given to Sardinia, which thus laid the foundation of her future greatness. The Papal Government was re-established in the States of the Church. Naples and Sicily were restored to their Bourbon rulers, and Tuscany became again a grand-duchy.

Austria received, also, besides the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the Illyrian provinces (the old dominion of Venice), and Salzburg and Tyrol, taken from Bavaria. The true ruler of this Austrian empire, which stretched over Slavonic, German, and Italian lands, was Prince Metternich. Not content to rule this motley empire, he wished to make Germany and Italy his prefectures, to treat the upward-striving Prussia as his vassal, and to take the



lead everywhere. For that reason he prevented the re-establishment of the German empire, but brought about a German confederation, with a Diet to be held at Frankfort, of which the Austrian emperor was to be president. The greater and smaller German states, to the number of thirty-eight, were to be members of the confederation, which had all the defects of the empire without the prestige of its traditions.

The restoration of the Prussian kingdom occasioned long and violent debates, principally on account of Russia claiming the Duchy of Warsaw, which contained the Polish land acquired by Prussia in the third partition. Prussia demanded in compensation the whole of Saxony, and was supported by Russia, while she was opposed by Austria, France, and England. It was finally settled by giving Posen back to Prussia, which was further compensated with about a third part of Saxony, and the Rhenish provinces.

On the whole, Russia was the greatest gainer by this new adjustment of European boundaries, as besides the Duchy of Warsaw, by which she thrust herself into the middle of Europe, she obtained Finland in the north, and Bessarabia and part of Moldavia in the south. The France of the restored Bourbons was the France of the elder Bourbons (the boundaries of 1790), enlarged by those small isolated scraps of foreign soil which were needed to make it continuous. With the view of coercing France on the north, Belgium and the Dutch provinces were erected into the kingdom of the Netherlands. This union lasted only till 1830, when Belgium revolted and became an independent kingdom, under Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg.

The Restoration in Spain.—No nation disorganized as Spain was at the beginning of this century could have had a greater blessing than the Napoleonic aggression was proving itself to be, had it got time to work its natural effect. But England unluckily sent her armies to deliver Spain. Without England Spain might have fought herself free, and have risen to national unity and dignity in the struggle. The outcome of all the English heroism that was displayed in the Peninsula was the restoration of the Bourbons in the person of Ferdinand VII., whose first act was the suppression of the national parliament which, at Seville (or Cadiz), had been busy hurling defiance at the French.

This parliament (*the Cortes of Cadiz*) had devised, in 1812, a constitution which, on the whole, was most creditable to its framers. In 1814 Ferdinand VII. overthrew this constitution, restored the inquisition, and ruled for six

years despotically. Impecuniosity broke the neck of his power; the treasury was empty, and the great source of Spain's income in former times, her American colonies, was slipping from her grasp. By 1818 they had all declared their independence. With great difficulty Ferdinand collected an army to reconquer the colonies. It assembled at Cadiz, but got no farther, for poor Ferdinand had no ships to send it across the sea. He had not even money to pay them, and consequently they mutinied. The rebellious troops were victorious (1820), and Riego, their leader, proclaimed the constitution of 1812. This inaugurated a brief period of liberty, which continued until the Spanish patriots were put down by the French under the Duc d'Angoulême (1823). Ferdinand VII. was once more able to ride rough-shod over all that was honest and virtuous from the Bidasoa to the lines of Gibraltar. This terrible time lasted until Ferdinand's death in 1833. One of his last acts had been the confirmation of the right of succession of his daughter ISABELLA, as against his brother DON CARLOS.

Isabella II. was proclaimed queen, under the regency of the queen-mother Christina. Ferdinand was not cold in his grave ere insurrection broke out in the north in the name of Don Carlos. And though the Cortes, in 1834, decreed his absolute exclusion from the succession, the insurrection grew and spread until it became a great civil war. The Carlist insurrection obliged the queen-mother to rely on the support of the Liberals, and consequently she chose for her prime minister MARTINEZ DE LA ROSA. By his advice she promulgated the *Estatuto real*, a constitution professing to be founded upon the ancient liberties of Spain.

MENDEZABAL, the successor of Rosa, made his name a household word with all Spanish patriots by his three great measures: *the closing of the monasteries, the sale of all the lands belonging to the regular clergy, and the organization of a national guard*. In the meanwhile the Carlist war dragged on in ever-increasing volume till, in 1837, the combatants had between them over 300,000 men in the field. Numerically the Christinas, or the Regent's followers were by far the stronger, but the dash and generalship were all on the other side. Disensions at length broke out in the camp of Don Carlos, just on the eve of his apparent triumph. The hill-tribes were tired of fighting. So when the government in Madrid guaranteed them their privileges they deserted Don Carlos, and by the end of 1840 his cause seemed lost forever. About the same time (October, 1840) the Queen-regent Chris-

tina was forced to resign, and ESPARTERO, who had made himself conspicuous against the Carlists, became regent. He ruled fairly well for a time, but his harsh treatment of Barcelona, in 1842, exasperated the people to such a degree that all parties united against him, and he was forced to seek an asylum in England. Isabella was now declared of age by the Cortes (November 10, 1843). From this moment the policy of Spain turned almost entirely on the marriage of the young queen. Louis Philippe, King of the French, with the acquiescence of Christina, had selected for Isabella's husband *Francesco d' Assisi*, the eldest son of *Francis de Paula*, a young man alike incapable in mind and body, while he designed his own son, the *Duke de Montpensier*, for Isabella's younger and healthier sister *Maria Louisa*. The young queen manifested a strong aversion for Francesco, but by the machinations of Louis Philippe and Christina, Isabella's scruples to accept her cousin were overcome, and the King of the French gained a transient triumph by the simultaneous marriage of Isabella with Francesco and of Montpensier with Maria Louisa (October 10, 1846).

Louis Philippe's deep laid plot was, however, frustrated by the expulsion of the Orleans Dynasty from France (1848), and also by Queen Isabella giving birth to a daughter in 1851.

The Restoration in Italy.—The arrangements made by the Congress of Vienna with respect to Italy were such as to leave the Italians universally dissatisfied. At length a formidable secret society was established among them, with a view to combine the disaffected in all the states in one common effort against the native despots and the Austrians. The conspirators called themselves Carbonari (charcoal-burners). About the year 1831 Carbonarism was superseded by a new form of Italian patriotism, of a more energetic character. It arose in Piedmont, under the auspices of a number of Genoese youths, who organized themselves into a body called *Young Italy*. Their leader and founder was MAZZINI, whose view was that the freedom of Italy, both from domestic and foreign tyranny, could only be attained by a union of all the separate states into one nation, all merging their separate names in the one common name of Italians, and under this name forming a single powerful European nation. But the conspiracy having been prematurely discovered, the Piedmontese Government took steps for breaking it up. Many of the chief agents were arrested and put to death. Mazzini escaped to Great Britain (1833). From that time no consider-

able attempt at insurrection was made. The Austrians in Northern Italy, and the native dynasties throughout the rest of the peninsula, continued to rule by military force and the terrors of a secret police system. The accession of Pope Pius IX. (1846), however, was hailed by the Italians as the dawn of a new day, and immense expectations were formed from the liberal acts of the first year of his pontificate. In the midst of this excitement the news of the French Revolution passed through Italy.

The Restoration in Austria.—The political history of Austria, under the rule of METTERNICH as prime minister, first for Francis I. (1815–1835) and then for his son and successor Ferdinand II. (1835–1848), may be said to have consisted in an incessant war between the central government and the four following elements of revolt.

I. GERMAN LIBERALISM, or the longing for constitutional government which existed chiefly among the young men of the educated classes.

II. MAGYARISM or the desire of the Magyars (the ruling race in Hungary) to free their country from all Austrian influence. The *Old Magyar party* wished to concede political rights to none but the Magyar nobles. The *New Hungarian party*, however, thought the independence of Hungary could only be maintained by admitting all inhabitants of Hungary alike to political rights and forming Magyars, Slavonians, and other races into one powerful nation. Kossuth was their leader.

III. ITALIAN PATRIOTISM, or the attempt of Northeastern Italy to free themselves from the Austrians.

IV. SLAVISM, or the longings of the various Slavonian populations of the empire (*Bohemians, Moravians, Croats, Illyrians*, etc.) to free themselves from Austrian rule. JOHN KOLLAR, of Pesth, a man of a poetical and fervid and, at the same time, of a scholarly mind, first propounded the doctrine of *Panslavism*, or the union of all the 80,000,000 of Slavonians (one-fifth of which belonged to Austria) into one Slavonian empire.

As *privy-chancellor of State*, Metternich acted in all matters for the emperor. A man of pleasing manners, and highly cultivated mind, it was his object to govern despotically and yet to let the despotism be as little felt as possible. This system of *paternal government* might have succeeded in a small state. In so large an empire, however, the personal manner of the ruler could not penetrate far; and hence it was only by harshness, and severity on the part of the resident officials, by arrests of discontented individuals, and by employing military forces collected in one part of the em-

pire to keep down revolt in another, that the various provinces and populations could be held together. The French Revolution of 1848 produced an insurrection of the different nationalities subject to the Austrian sway. The whole strength of that vast but ill-compacted empire seemed to collapse in a single day.

The Restoration in Germany.—Liberal ideas had been spontaneously making progress in Germany. The expulsion of the older Bourbons from France in 1830 had agitated the minor states and had obliged the majority of their governments to grant constitutions to their subjects. These constitutions were after the model of that of France. But the German princes soon found the means of imitating Louis Philippe and practically neutralizing the constitutions as much as possible by all kinds of restrictions on the press and on popular liberty. The consequences of this were a widespread discontent. The French Revolution of 1848 set all Germany in a blaze.

The Restoration in France.—Louis XVIII. died in 1824, and was succeeded by his brother, Charles X. He and his minister, Polignac, attempted to *suspend the liberty of the press, to dissolve the Chambers, and to set aside the charter.* The three ordinances which were to bring this about were signed July 25, 1830. On the 27th the police seized the newspapers and destroyed the printing presses, and on Wednesday, July 28th, barricades arose in Paris. The king abdicated rather than make concessions, and the Duke of Orleans became the "citizen king," Louis Philippe.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848.

Europe on the Eve of the Revolution.—The European States had gradually ranged themselves into two classes. In the first class were the constitutionally governed states: Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and some of the minor German States. There was another class of states, however, including Russia, Austria, Prussia, some of the minor German states, and all the Italian states, in which the theory was that the right of ruling and making laws belonged absolutely to certain dynasties, who, although morally bound to consult the interests of the governed populations, were not responsible to their subjects for their manner of doing so. In all such absolutely governed states there was a chronic strife between the people and their rulers. It was evident that a conflict was in preparation between the opposed principles of absolutism and representative government. The year 1848 witnessed the outbreak of this movement.

The Outbreak in France.—It began in France, where the attempts of Louis Philippe and his prime minister, Guizot, to render the government gradually independent of the nation, and to follow the footsteps of the absolute empires, created a deep-felt discontent, which was increased by the unprecedented scarcity of the years 1846 and 1847. Disturbances broke out in several places, and the Liberal party began to agitate an electoral reform. The king, on opening the chambers, December 27, 1847, plainly intimated his conviction that no reform was needed. In consequence of this very sharp debates took place on the address, and the opposition determined to have a colossal reform banquet in the Champs Elysées, on February 22, 1848; but it was forbidden by Guizot.

The parliamentary Liberals resented this act of power and the Republicans seized the opportunity. Barricades were erected in the streets of Paris, and Louis Philippe was obliged to abdicate, and flee with his family to England. France was declared once more to be a Republic, and a provisional government was established under Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, Arago, etc.

The same dangerous elements were again afloat as in the first revolution, and if they did not gain the ascendancy, it was because the higher and middle classes, instructed by experience, actively opposed them. Fifty-one Communistic clubs were established in Paris. The ultra-democrats, Cabet, Blanqui, and Raspail, formed a sort of triumvirate, and incited these clubs to proceed to extremities, in order to establish a red republic under Ledru-Rollin. But the citizens and national guards were on the alert; 100,000 national guards assembled to preserve the peace, and the communist party were overawed. From this day, April 16, 1848, the extreme party was defeated. The revolutionists of February had pronounced it to be the duty of the State to provide employment for its citizens, and had followed up this declaration by the establishment of national workshops. Thus the State was converted into a master-manufacturer, to whose service, as the pay was good and the superintendence not over strict, flocked all the lazy, skulking mechanics of Paris and its neighborhood. They soon numbered 80,000, to be maintained at the public expense, for the ruin of private tradesmen.

An attempt of the government to dismiss part of these workmen produced one of the bloodiest battles Paris had yet seen (300 barricades thrown up and 16,000 people killed and wounded). The battle began on June 23d, and lasted four days; but the insurgents were

at length subdued by the superior force of the troops of the line and the national guards.

General CAVAIGNAC, who had been appointed Dictator during the struggle, now laid down his office, but was appointed chief of the Executive Commission, with the title of President of the Council.

The fear which socialism had inspired had produced among the more educated classes a reaction in favor of monarchy. A new constitution was prepared, by which France was declared a republic, headed by a president, elected every four years by the direct suffrages of all the electors, in whom was vested the sole executive authority. The legislative authority was committed to a single assembly of 750 members, elected by all Frenchmen who had attained their twenty-first year. For the presidency became candidates Louis Napoleon, Cavaignac, Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, and Raspail. In his address to the electors, Louis Napoleon promised order at home, peace abroad, a reduction of taxes, and a ministry chosen from the best and most able men of all parties. The peasantry and the common soldiers were his chief supporters. The election took place December 10th, when Napoleon obtained five and a half million of votes, while Cavaignac, who stood next, had only about one and a half million, and the other candidates but very small numbers. Napoleon was installed in the office which he had thus triumphantly won (December 20, 1848).

The Austro-Hungarian Revolution.—When the news of the French revolution arrived in Hungary, Kossuth carried in the Diet at Pesth an address to the emperor-king (March 3d) demanding a national government. Metternich prepared to resist this demand by military force. The insurrection of the Viennese, however, having driven Metternich into exile, and compelled Emperor Ferdinand II. to grant a constitution to his German subjects, the Hungarians gained the day. The Archduke Stephen was named Hungarian Palatine, and Kossuth was appointed Secretary of the Treasury (March 18th). The hopes of the democrats were now fixed upon Vienna, where the people had obtained the mastery, and were supported by Kossuth with the whole strength of Hungary. After consenting to the establishment of a constituent imperial diet, the emperor had fled to the Tyrol, and Kossuth, through his partisans, ruled as effectually in Vienna as in Pesth. The sixteen millions of Slavonians subject to Austria thought the time at hand for realizing their Panslavistic dreams. A congress of deputies, professing to represent all the Slavonian populations of Europe (with the exception of Russia), met at

Prague in May, 1848. *Palacky*, the historian of Bohemia, was the soul of this movement. The people of Prague, tired of the oratory of this congress, broke out in insurrection (June 11th). The suppression of this insurrection by Prince Windischgrätz was the first reactionary triumph of the imperial arms, and this was followed by a rising of the southern Slavonians in favor of the Emperor. The Croat chief Jellachich put himself at the head of this movement and invaded Hungary with 65,000 men (September 11th), avowedly as an officer of the emperor entrusted with the task of reducing the Hungarians to obedience. But they were defeated (September 29th) and driven toward the Austrian frontier. Great was the excitement in Vienna when it became known that Jellachich was in full retreat toward the city. The excitement increased on the appearance of an imperial decree, which dissolved the Hungarian diet, placed Hungary under martial law, and appointed Jellachich governor of the country. The Viennese recognizing in this blow struck at the Hungarians, a blow struck at their own liberties, rose in insurrection (October 6, 1848). A revolutionary government was organized, consisting of the democratic leaders of the Viennese diet, assisted by some members of the Frankfort parliament (among them Robert Blum). The military command was entrusted to Bem, a Pole of Galicia. For ten days Bem maintained the defence against the united armies of Windischgrätz and Jellachich (80,000 men), who had laid siege to the city in the name of the Emperor. Bem's sole hope of ultimate success, however, was that the Hungarians, in whose behalf they had made the revolution, would come to their relief. They did come, but too late. When the Hungarian army under *Görgey* appeared before Vienna (October 30, 1848) the bombardment of the city was at an end, and Windischgrätz was already entering it. The Viennese were subjected to the usual consequences of an unsuccessful revolt. Blum and others were shot or hanged, and Bem escaped with difficulty. But a revolution now ensued at Court, and on December 2, 1848, Emperor Ferdinand II. abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present emperor. Hungary refused to acknowledge Ferdinand's abdication and rose in rebellion. The task of reducing Hungary was intrusted to Windischgrätz, who soon entered Pesth without opposition (January 5, 1849). But now the tide turned. Battle after battle was fought, and for four months Hungary was the scene of a war far more terrible and gigantic than any that Europe had known since the days of Napoleon. The successes of the Hun-

garians were such as to astonish the world. By the month of April the Austrians had been driven from Hungary, and the Hungarians had chosen Kossuth as their governor. Vienna itself was threatened. Austria now accepted the aid of Russia. Toward the close of April, a Russian army, entering Hungary from the north, began to co-operate with fresh Austrian and Croatian armies. Even against this overwhelming force, the Hungarians kept up a defense till August 13, 1849, on which day Görgey surrendered to the Russians. At first there were rumors that the Russian emperor meant to keep the country and proclaim its independence of Austria, with one of his own sons as king. Tsar Nicholas, however, resigned Hungary back into the hands of Emperor Francis Joseph whose agents (especially Haynau) distinguished themselves by the most horrible acts of cruelty, perpetrated in his name, by way of vengeance.

The Revolution in Germany.—Revolutionary symptoms first appeared on the banks of the Rhine. At Mannheim, the people assembled and demanded the freedom of the press and a *German Parliament*. These demands soon re-echoed through the whole confederation. In the smaller states everything was conceded at once. Bavaria, Saxony, and Hanover alone opposed any resistance to the people, till Austria and Prussia were likewise observed to be in confusion. Then, all over Germany, the sovereigns began bowing before their subjects, making speeches to them, promising to govern them on new principles, and asking oblivion for the past.

An attempt was even made to place the King of Prussia at the head of the German national movement. A proclamation was issued declaring that *Prussia rises into Germany*. These proceedings, however, produced a bad impression in Germany, and were nearly everywhere received with unconcealed scorn. The leaders of the opposition in the various German representative assemblies held a meeting at Heidelberg, March 8th, and published a proclamation to the German nation promising them a national representation, and inviting them to attend a *preliminary parliament*, in which a representative system was to be prepared. It was opened in the church of St. Paul, at Frankfort, on March 31, 1848, where it was agreed that a *general constituent assembly* should be held at Frankfort, to which deputies should be sent (1 for every 50,000) from every part of Germany. It assembled on May 18th for the purpose of giving Germany a constitution.

They decided finally to revive the German Empire, but with the addition of an Imperial Parliament. Archduke John, uncle of Em-

peror Francis Joseph, was chosen Imperial Vicar.

The Diet of the Confederation held then its last sitting (July 12th), and handed over its power to the newly elected German Parliament, which was now the supreme authority in the empire. This parliament elected, by a small majority, the King of Prussia *hereditary Emperor* (March 28, 1849), a dignity, however, which Frederick William IV. declined to accept. After this election Austria withdrew her representatives from the parliament, which example was soon followed by Prussia and Saxony. That assembly was also reduced, by the desertion of other members, to little more than one hundred persons, who, deeming themselves no longer secure in Frankfort, transferred their sittings to Stuttgart. Here they deposed the imperial vicar, and appointed a new regency, consisting of five members. But, as they began to call the people to arms, they were dispersed by the Wirtemberg government (June 18, 1849).

Meanwhile, in the rest of Germany also, matters were gradually resuming their ancient course. The question of the German constitution, however, still remained a cause of disunion. Austria, backed by the influence of Russia, succeeded in re-establishing the federal constitution with the Frankfort Diet, as arranged in 1815. The Prussian Government now endeavored, in opposition to Austria, to form a new confederation, of which Prussia was to be the presiding power, and which was to consist of all the German States, except Austria. With this view a German Parliament was convoked at Erfurt (March 20, 1850), which, however, after a few sittings, indefinitely adjourned.

Frederick William IV. made another attempt to form a separate league, by summoning a congress of princes at Berlin, in May. At the same time Austria had summoned the Diet of the Confederation to meet at Frankfort, which was attended by representatives from all the States, except Prussia and Oldenburg. Thus, two rival congresses were sitting at the same time; one at Berlin, to establish a new confederation under Prussian influence, and one at Frankfort, to maintain the old one, under the supremacy of Austria. The quarrel between Prussia and Austria was brought to an issue by the disturbances in Hesse-Cassel, where the elector openly outraged the constitution by proceeding to levy taxes on his own authority, in consequence of which the people rose in revolt, and drove him from his dominions. The Diet at Frankfort resolved to support the elector against his subjects, while Prussia took up the opposite side and moved

a large military force toward the Hessian frontier. A collision appeared inevitable, when hostilities were averted by Russian interference.

Tsar Nicholas, then the virtual dictator of Europe, forced Prussia to recall her troops. The convention of Olmütz (November 29, 1850) put the seal to Prussia's humiliation. There the whole fabric of Prussian hegemony went down, and the German dream of unity seemed more illusory than ever. Triumphant Austria now boldly demanded admission into the German confederacy, with all her heterogeneous peoples. Humiliated Prussia was half inclined to yield, but England and France backed the smaller states in their resistance to this arrogant project, which resulted in a re-establishing of the Diet as it had been arranged in 1815.

The Revolution in Italy.—When the tidings of the fall of the July throne arrived in Italy, all native despotisms fell before the blast of this news. Charles Albert, in the Sardinian States; Ferdinand II. in Naples, the Grand-Duke Leopold in Tuscany, and the Dukes of Modena and Parma could only keep their thrones by giving or promising constitutions. But, besides thus yielding to the revolutionary force within their own dominions, these sovereigns found themselves obliged to join a common enterprise for driving the Austrians out of Northern Italy. Not without great hesitation most of the Italian princes joined in the league against their common protector, Austria. Charles Albert of Sardinia alone took up the national cause with spirit. He boldly undertook to lead the Italians. But beaten at Custoza and Novara he had to abdicate in favor of his son Victor Emanuel. The Venetians, who had associated themselves with Charles Albert, resolved, notwithstanding his defeat, to continue the war of independence on their own account; and, raising their ancient republican standard of St. Mark, they constituted themselves into a republic, under a triumvirate, of whom the most influential member was Manin.

After Lombardy was again subdued, RADETSKY proceeded to invest Venice (summer of 1848). It was not reduced by the Austrians till August 22, 1849, partly by bombardment, partly through the effects of famine.

The defeat of Charles Albert had been a heavy blow to Italian freedom; and the Italian sovereigns availed themselves of it to begin a reactionary policy within their respective states. Ferdinand II. (King Bomba) set the example. As early as May, 1848, he had contrived, after a fearful massacre in the streets, to become master of Naples. After the bat-

tle of Custoza (July 24, 1848) he openly professed his determination to restore despotism through his dominions. After he had reduced Naples, Sicily continued in a state of rebellion, the inhabitants having chosen (July, 1848) Ferdinand, brother of Victor Emanuel, for their king. He declined, however, to accept the proffered crown. Filangieri, with a Neapolitan army, landed at Messina, and captured that town after a sanguinary struggle. In the spring of 1849, Filangieri reduced Catania and Syracuse, and on April 23, 1849, he entered Palermo, putting an end to the rebellion.

In the Papal States, Pope Pius IX. continued to govern the Romans according to the constitution he had granted them. His principal adviser was Count Rossi, who, having incurred the bitter hatred of the demagogues, was assassinated (November 15, 1848). Upon this the mob attacked the pope in the Quirinal, and murdered his secretary, Cardinal Palma. The pope succeeded in escaping, and betook himself to Gaeta. The Roman Parliament having in vain implored him to return, proceeded to establish a provincial government. At length (February 5, 1849) was opened at Rome a general Italian Constituent Assembly, which began by deposing the pope as a temporal prince and proclaiming the Roman republic (February 8th). A triumvirate having been chosen to form the executive, Mazzini became chief triumvir. But soon a reaction commenced. The Austrians began to enter Central Italy, while France and Spain also despatched troops to the pope's aid. A division of 6,000 French troops, under General Oudinot, landed at Civita Vecchia (April 25th) and captured Rome on July 3, 1849.

The French remained exclusive masters of the city, till April, 1850, when the pope returned, and re-established his government.

But the cause of Italian unity and independence was not lost. One result of the Franco-Prussian War was the incorporation of the Papal States with Italy, and Rome became the capital of United Italy October 9, 1870. The first king was Victor Emmanuel, who was succeeded at his death in 1878 by his son Humbert I. King Humbert was murdered by an anarchist, at Monza, July 29, 1900. His only son, the Prince of Naples, succeeded to the throne as Victor Emmanuel III.

The Danish Succession Question.—The two Elbe duchies of Sleswick and Holstein were ruled as *Duke* by the King of Denmark. In the duchies females were excluded from succeeding to the sovereignty, though such was not the case in Denmark.

Since 1839 Christian VIII. was King of Denmark, whose only son Frederick did not prom-

ise to leave any posterity. His cousin Frederick, Landgrave of Hessa, son of his aunt Charlotte, was, therefore, the eventual heir of Denmark. He was married to Alexandra, daughter of Tsar Nicholas, and hence the imperial family of Russia had obtained a near interest in the Danish succession.

On the other hand, Duke Christian of Augustenburg, as the nearest male agnate of the Danish royal family, began to entertain hopes of succeeding in the Elbe duchies, and did everything that lay in his power to support the German party in them.

The beginning of the succession troubles dates from December 21, 1844, when a resolution was introduced in the Danish Congress to declare Sleswick-Holstein an integral part of the Danish monarchy, and, therefore, subject to the Danish law of female succession. Holstein protested, and for the present the measure was allowed to rest; but in July, 1846, King Christian VIII., in the interests of Russian policy, issued letters-patent extending the Danish law of female succession to the whole of his dominions.

The German party in the duchies were alarmed at this step, and Holstein appealed to the Confederate Diet (August 3d). King Christian at once promised that the rights of the German Confederacy, and the succession of the legal magnates, should not be interfered with.

Here the matter remained till the death of Christian VIII. (January 20, 1848). His son and successor, Frederick VII., anxious for the integrity of the monarchy, tried to terminate the difficulty by granting a very liberal constitution, which, however, was to supersede the separate administrations of the duchies, and thus virtually to incorporate them with Denmark.

Against this the duchies protested at once, with a counter-demand of the incorporation of both with the German Confederacy (March 18, 1848). They established a provisional government, and made ready for armed resistance (March 24th). Germany, anxious to acquire ports on the German Ocean (an almost indispensable condition to the creation of a German navy), applauded the action of the duchies, and promised assistance. On April 4, 1848, Frederick William of Prussia was formally invited, in the name of the confederacy, to assume the management of the Danish question, and before the end of the month General Wrangel had entered Holstein and taken the *Dannewirk* by storm. The Danes, however, blockaded the German ports, and nearly ruined the German trade, which forced the Germans to conclude an armistice at Malmoe (August 27th).

During this armistice Sleswick-Holstein should have a common government, one-half to be appointed by Denmark, the other half by Prussia.

But Denmark soon became dissatisfied with this arrangement, terminated the armistice (April 26, 1849), and, backed by the great powers, forced Prussia to relinquish the duchies to her (July 2, 1850). The rights of the German Confederacy in Holstein, however, were maintained. The duchies protested against this arrangement, and, when this proved to be in vain, renewed the war on their own account, but were finally reduced to submission to the King of Denmark, by the intervention of Austria.

The affairs of Denmark were ultimately arranged at the instance of Tsar Nicholas, by the treaty of London (May 8, 1852), which extended the Holstein law of male succession to the whole of the dominions of the Danish king. But the nearest male agnate (the Duke of Augustenburg) was excluded from the succession on account of the actual part he had taken in the revolt of the duchies. All the dominions then united under the sceptre of Denmark were to devolve to Prince Christian of Glücksburg (the second male agnate) and upon his issue in the male line by his marriage with Louisa, Princess of Hessa.

THE SECOND EMPIRE (1852-1870).

The Foundation of the Second Empire.

—From the outset of his presidential career, Louis Napoleon's sole aim was *the overthrow of the Republic*. Knowing the immense influence of the clergy, he was anxious to ingratiate himself with them. For this purpose he had ordered the attack on Rome, which led to the return of the pope to the Vatican (April, 1850). But this policy inaugurated the struggle between Louis Napoleon and the Assembly. He had, however, the majority of Frenchmen on his side, who rejoiced in the rehabilitation of the pope, and who considered that the country had been coerced in the act of declaring itself a republic. The Assembly, in the meanwhile, lost more and more credit with all classes. The famous *Electoral Law* (May 31, 1850), which restricted universal suffrage, estranged the great mass of the lower classes. Napoleon, on the other hand, endeared himself to them by proposing to the Assembly (November 4, 1850) the re-establishment of universal suffrage. The rejection of this proposal deprived the Assembly of its last remnant of popularity. The industry and commerce of France suffered greatly through all these dissensions, and the industrial classes began to look upon the Assembly as a stum-

bling-block on the road to a settled government.

The presidential term would expire in May, 1852, and under the existing constitution Louis Napoleon was not re-eligible. But no one believed in, or cared for the permanency of this constitution; neither did anyone believe that Napoleon would give up the power he held, neither did the large majority wish him to give it up.

The 2d of December, 1851 (the anniversary of the battle of Austerlitz), was the day chosen by Louis Napoleon to make an end to this painful situation. The night before, three important measures were determined upon, and at once carried out: The nocturnal arrest of all dangerous representatives; the distribution of 30,000 men through Paris, and the printing and publishing of four proclamations by which *Paris and the adjacent departments were proclaimed in a state of siege, the Assembly was dissolved, universal suffrage was re-established and the French people were convoked to their electoral meetings* (December 14-21).

When the majority of the Assembly heard of this, they hastened to their palace to depose the President. Admittance being refused, they held a meeting at the Mairie of the tenth arrondissement. Here they were arrested. Some resistance was attempted, but the fear of anarchy induced the upper and middle classes to support the President; the lower classes had been gained by the restoration of universal suffrage. Within three weeks (December 20th), France, by more than seven millions of votes, elected Louis Napoleon President for ten years, and intrusted him with the making of a new constitution, which was promulgated January 14, 1852.

Nominally assisted by a council of state, a senate, and a legislative body, Louis Napoleon was really now autocrat. During a journey through the provinces in September, 1852, he was received everywhere with cries of "*Vive l'Empereur!*" On returning to Paris the *Moniteur* announced that the manifest demonstrations in favor of the Empire imposed on the President the duty of consulting the Senate, which body accordingly was directed to debate the restoration of the empire, but it was to be sanctioned by the universal suffrage of the nation.

The number of votes in favor of the restoration of the empire reached nearly eight millions, and on December 2, 1852, the President was proclaimed Emperor, with the title of Napoleon III.

The Crimean War (1854-1856).—The only country in Europe which had not been affected by the great upheaval of 1848 was Russia.

Tsar Nicholas looked upon himself as the autocrat of Europe. He thought the time had come for annexing the Balkan peninsula and seizing the "*key to the Russian house*," Constantinople. After collecting a fleet and army at Sebastopol, the Tsar proposed to the British government a partition of Turkey, by which Egypt was to fall to the share of England. The offer was promptly rejected. It was then made to France with the same result. England's loudly expressed horror of war encouraged the Tsar to believe that he might, with impunity, carry out his plans without its co-operation.

As for an alliance between England and France, he considered it the primary condition of European politics that the two great Western nations should be in antagonism. The Tsar despatched Prince Mentchekoff to Constantinople with demands which, if conceded, would virtually reduce Turkey to the condition of a Russian province. Mentchekoff delivered his message with marks of the greatest contempt, and, after handing in an ultimatum that was discarded, took his departure (May 21st). Within three days of his departure France and England were beginning to concert resistance to Russia, and before the end of May Lord Stratford, the English ambassador in Constantinople, was instructed to inform the Porte that the whole force of the British Empire should be used for the protection of the integrity of the Osmanli Empire.

Russia now declared (May 31st) that her troops would in a few weeks cross the frontier (the river Pruth) and occupy Moldavia and Wallachia, *not to wage war*, but to obtain material guarantees for the fulfilment of the Tsar's demands. The French and English fleets were at once despatched to the East, and on June 13th they cast anchor in Besika Bay, ready to enter the Dardanelles at a moment's notice. Early in July, 1853, the Russians crossed the boundary, but contented themselves with occupying the left bank of the Danube. On October 5th they were ordered to evacuate the Turkish territory within fifteen days, and on October 14th the Anglo-French fleet entered the Dardanelles.

The alternative now before the Tsar was either to evacuate the Turkish territory, or to declare war. He chose the last. On November 1st Nicholas issued his declaration of war against the Osmanli Empire. Still, the continuance of the forty years' peace was not yet despaired of.

But on November 30th the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope extinguished the last hope. As the Anglo-French fleet was

now at anchor in the Bosphorus, this act appeared a wilful defiance of the Western powers. They ordered their admirals to take care that the Russian fleet did no more damage in the Black Sea. From that time the Russian navy was shut up in the harbor of Sebastopol.

On March 28, 1854, war was declared against Russia both by England and France. The war soon concentrated itself in the Crimea (September, 1854), and lasted till March, 1856, when the strength of Russia was so much impaired that she was glad to conclude a peace which banished her fleets from the Black Sea.

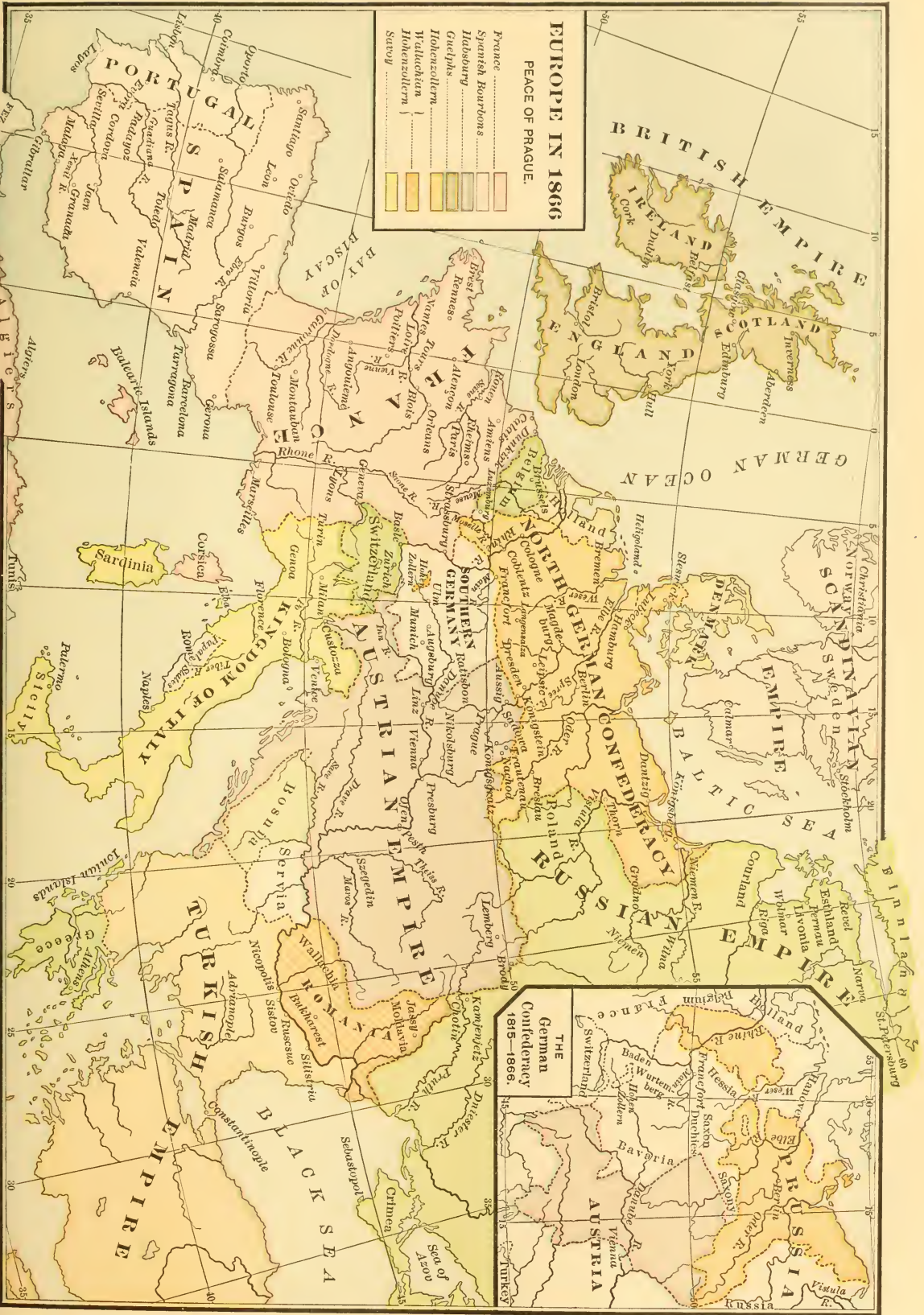
Consequences of the Crimean War.—The great result of this Crimean War was that Russia had lost that commanding position which made her master of Germany, and had lost it through the treachery of Austria. Out of revenge, she encouraged the Sardinian plans for driving the Austrians out of Italy. Cavour had put Napoleon under obligations by his co-operation in the Crimea, and now wanted a French alliance to free his country from the Austrians. The help was given, and a Franco-Sardinian army drove the Austrians across the Mincio (July, 1859). Lombardy was added to Sardinia. In the next year, Central and Southern Italy drove out their dynasts, and united with the kingdom of Victor Emanuel.

The Second Danish War of 1864.—The Crimean War had completely altered the relations of all the powers who were parties to the London treaty of 1852. Russia was no longer prepared to fight for the execution of an arrangement which she had originated. Tsar Alexander II., who (since March 2, 1855), had succeeded his father Nicholas, was busily engaged in carrying out the great work of his reign, the emancipation of the serfs, and still more deeply involved in restoring his shaken authority in Poland. Therefore, when Frederick VII. of Denmark died (November 15, 1863), it was soon seen that the Treaty of London could not be executed. Germany, eager to despoil Denmark, took possession of Holstein and seemed about to enter Sleswick, when Austria and Prussia assumed the burden of the quarrel. The new King of Denmark, Christian IX., having announced his intention to separate Sleswick from Holstein and incorporate it with Denmark, Austria and Prussia objected in the name of the Duke of Augustenburg, maintaining that by an old treaty (1460) the two duchies could not be separated. Denmark insisting on its right to incorporate Sleswick, the Austro-Prussian army crossed the Eider, February 1, 1864, and forced King Christian to resign all his rights in the duchies in favor of Austria and Prussia as co-proprietors. Prussia wished to annex the duchies. Austria

desired no increase of territory, but was resolved that Prussia should obtain none; it favored the claims of the Prince of Augustenburg, whose pretensions were opposed by Prussia. The dispute between them ran so high that, in the summer of 1865, the outbreak of war appeared almost inevitable. The Gastein Convention postponed the outbreak. The two powers agreed between themselves to ignore all their own previous declarations and professions, and to declare themselves the joint successors, by right of conquest, to King Christian's claims upon the duchies, the provisional administration of which they proceeded to divide between them, Prussia taking *Sleswick*, Austria *Holstein*.

Prussia strictly forbade all agitation in Sleswick in favor of the Prince of Augustenburg. Austria, on the other hand, allowed the prince's friends to promote his cause in Holstein as much as they chose. On January 26, 1866, Bismarck addressed a formal protest to the Austrian government against its policy in Holstein. A categorical statement of its future intentions was demanded. Austria returned a temperate answer (February 7th), but declined the categorical statement required. Bismarck, the leading Prussian minister, declared that he would refrain in future from any communication whatsoever with Austria relative to the duchies.

Austro-Prussian War of 1866.—It was now very evident that war could not long be deferred. While Austria was doing her utmost to excite the German Confederacy against Prussia, Bismarck looked around for some active ally who might counterbalance the well-known traditional influence of Austria with the secondary German states. That ally was found at once in Austria's "natural enemy" Italy, and with her an offensive and defensive alliance was speedily concluded. Napoleon III., whose influence over Italy at that period was supreme, might have prevented the alliance. But he had been secured by Bismarck beforehand (at Biarritz in 1865), by the offer of the Rhine frontier. Bismarck knew that this offer would neither be accepted nor rejected. But in refusing to commit himself, Napoleon had conceded all that Prussia really desired—the *neutrality of France*. Bismarck was now ready for war. On June 16, 1866, the Prussians crossed the Saxon frontier and made themselves masters of the whole of Saxony. The Saxon troops had gone to join the Austrians in Bohemia, whither they were followed by the Prussians. The Italian army crossed the Mincio, but was defeated at Custoza (June 24th). The war, however, was decided by the great Prussian victory of Königs-



grätz (July 3d). Austria was no longer able to hold Venice, and gave it up to Napoleon, who handed it over to Italy (November 7th). This cession united the whole of Italy, with the exception of the district around Rome. This battle of Königgrätz raised Prussia to the first rank among the European powers. By the *Peace of Prague* (August 23, 1866), Austria was excluded from the German Confederation, and must consent to the formation of the *North German Confederacy*.

The Franco-Prussian War.—France had been violently excited by the Prussian success, the tremendous consequences of which were unfolding themselves before her eyes. There was no denying the fact that the Prussians had displayed all the best characteristics of a great military power. And the French army was in no condition to take the field, in case the friendly relations which then existed should be interrupted. Even before the preliminaries of peace were settled, France gave Prussia to understand that she would have to be compensated for the political changes to which these successes must give rise, and early in August, 1866, the French ambassador at Berlin formally demanded the cession of the *left bank of the Rhine*. Prussia sternly refused, and Napoleon was in no condition to press his claim.

In July, 1870, General Prim offered the crown of Spain to Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a distant relation of the King of Prussia. Napoleon, anxious for an opportunity to strengthen his waning popularity, resolved to object to Leopold's candidature. But he was resolved to avoid war. For, although assured by his marshals that all was ready for war, one thing troubled him. If a war had to be waged there was no man capable of directing it. When he saw that, in spite of himself, he was slowly drifting into war, he tried to avert it by submitting the question to a Congress of the Great Powers.

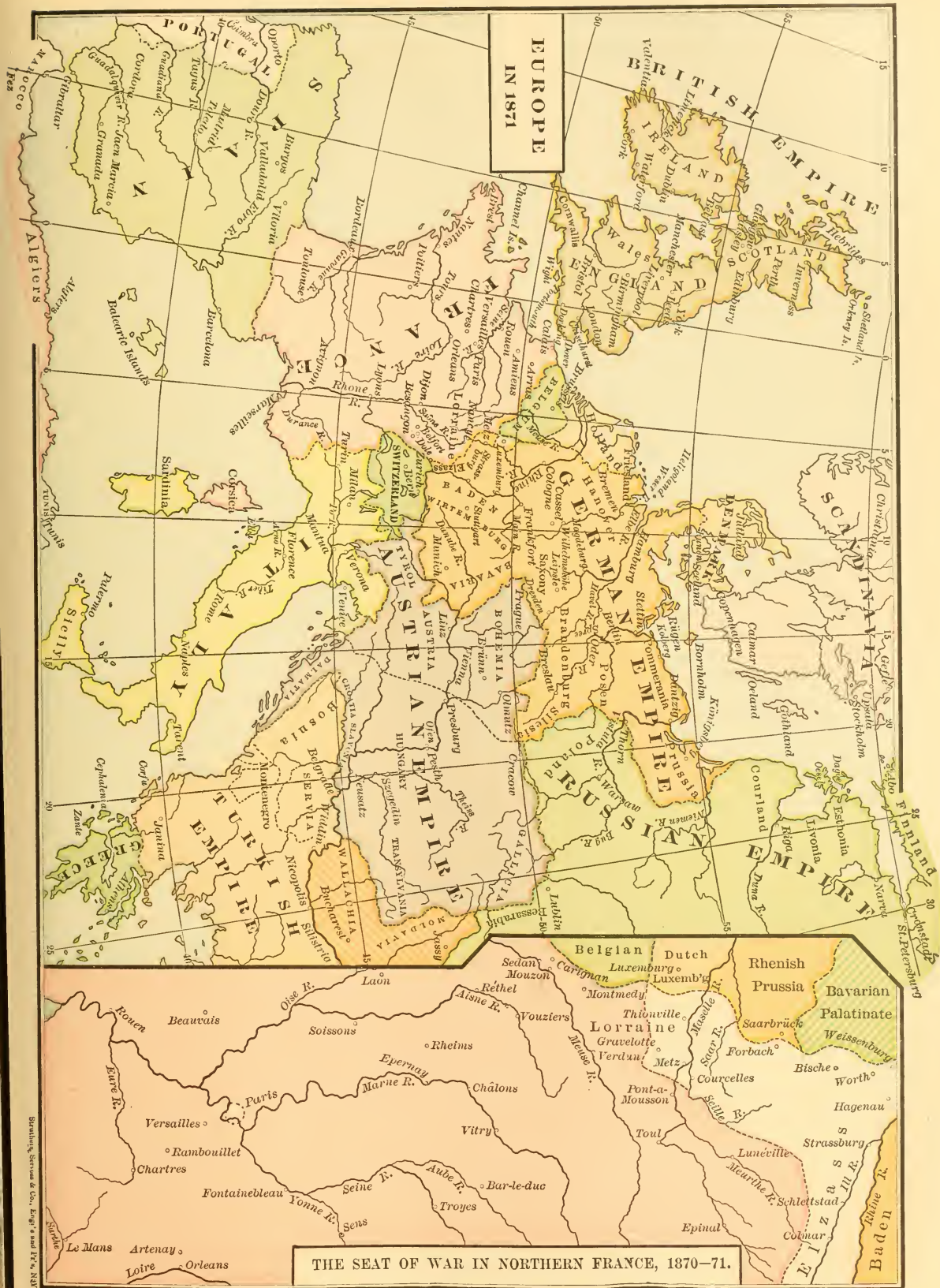
On the same day on which this resolution was taken, Napoleon's attention was called to the famous article inserted in the German newspapers, in which it was stated that the King of Prussia had dismissed Benedetti, telling him that he had nothing further to add. Bismarck had circulated this statement, in order to compromise everything, to force the hand of France, and to bring on war. And he attained his object.

Deputies and Senators vied with each other in expressing most forcibly the necessity for replying to this insolence by a declaration of war. The Empress seconded this warmly, and under such impulses Napoleon made a proclamation (July 19, 1870), in which he said,

"that Prussia, launched on the path of invasion, had aroused defiance everywhere, necessitated exaggerated armaments, and turned Europe into a camp where nothing but uncertainty reigned."

Napoleon had hoped that the South Germans, if they did not actually join France, would at least remain neutral. But, on July 20th, the South German princes formally announced to the King of Prussia that their forces were at his disposal. The Prussian Crown Prince at once left Berlin to take the command of the Southern armies. When the Germans received the French declaration of war, they were ready for action. Their army numbered nearly a million, for whom everything, to the minutest particular had been provided. The French were not ready (Napoleon having been deceived by his marshals), besides being inferior in numbers (350,000 at the utmost), and inferior as regards commanders possessing the requisite foresight and strategical knowledge.

Marshal MacMahon, recalled from Africa to lead the First Army Corps into Germany, was badly beaten by the Crown Prince at *Weissenburg* (August 4th), and at *Wörth* (August 6th). The whole German army entered France, and on August 14th the Prussians occupied Nancy. The greater part of the French army was concentrated at Metz, under Bazaine; when he made an attempt to join MacMahon (who had retreated to the camp at Chalons), he was defeated at *Gravelotte* (August 18th), and forced to take refuge in Metz. MacMahon, trying to join Bazaine in Metz, was forced along toward *Sedan*, into which the French were driven from all sides. The iron ring of the German army surrounded the doomed town. Napoleon, in order to prevent a useless effusion of blood, surrendered with 84,000 men (September 2d). Paris went nearly mad with rage and disappointment when it heard the news. The emperor was deposed. A provisional government was formed, which opened negotiations for peace. These, however, came to nothing, in consequence of a declaration of Jules Favre that not a stone of the French fortresses nor an inch of French territory should be ceded. The Prussians continued to advance, and Paris was soon encircled by them. The siege lasted one hundred and thirty-one days. The city was forced to surrender on January 28, 1871. At the same time a general armistice was agreed upon. This was followed by a treaty of peace (February 26, 1871), under which the French gave up Alsace and Lorraine, consented to dismantle several fortresses, and to pay the enormous indemnity of \$1,000,000,000 (five milliards of francs).



THE PRUSSIAN ASCENDENCY.

Re-establishment of the German Empire.—One of the results of the German victories over France was the *re-establishment of the German Empire*. The national feeling engendered on the battle-fields, in the midst of common dangers and common hopes, gave rise to a desire for a closer union between the North and South of Germany. About the middle of October, 1870, plenipotentiaries were sent from all the southern states to Versailles for the purpose of bringing about a closer union. This resulted in changing the Northern Confederacy into a German Confederacy. King Louis II. of Bavaria proposed that the President of the German Confederacy should receive the title of *German Emperor*. Accordingly, on January 18, 1871, King William of Prussia, in the *Hall of Mirrors*, in the Palace of Versailles, was solemnly proclaimed emperor.

Another result of the war was the incorporation of the Papal States with Italy. Rome became the capital of United Italy (October 9, 1870).

The Spanish Revolution.—After the ill-omened marriage of Queen Isabella the government of the country mainly depended on the queen's favorites, for whose sole benefit the administration was conducted. At length Spain became disgusted with the wicked woman; the various parties united themselves. Isabella had to flee and was dethroned (September 30, 1868). For two years now Spain went a begging for a king.* At last (November 16, 1870) they succeeded in getting the King of Italy's second son, Amadeo, a man thoroughly alive to constitutional right, loyal to truth and the will of the nation.

But in such a country, so split into sections and factions, it was impossible that he could succeed. He held on bravely for a while (December 30, 1870, to February 11, 1873), but after two years he laid down his thorny crown. His abdication was the beginning of a general anarchy. The republic was proclaimed. Castelar tried in vain to set it firmly on its feet. In November, 1874, the condition of the Spanish republic had become so intolerable that the mass of the people began to long for a restoration of the Bourbons in the person of Alfonso, son of Isabella. He was proclaimed King Alfonso XII. on December 30, 1874 (died November 25, 1885).

* Among the many foreign princes to whom the Spanish throne was offered by Prim was that *Prince of Hohenzollern*, whose election was represented in Paris as a Prussian intrigue endangering the safety of France, and ultimately led to the declaration of war, which Napoleon III. declared was forced upon him by Prussia.

The Third French Republic.—The war so wickedly declared by the second empire against Prussia had resulted in the speedy defeat of the French armies and the overthrow of the Napoleonic dynasty. To the empire succeeded (September 4, 1870) the *Government of National Defence*. It arose out of a street riot, the forcible invasion of a national parliament, and the overthrow of an established constitution. But, although it had not a shadow of legal right, it was just then the only government possible. This government not only made peace for the nation, but engaged to get that peace ratified by a National Assembly; for the German conqueror needed a legal government to sign away Alsace-Lorraine and to pay the five milliards.

The elections to this National Assembly were held by surprise, while one-third of France was in the hands of the conqueror, the capital cut off from the country, and consultation physically impossible. The natural consequence was that this assembly was in no sense the representative of France. While Paris and the chief cities chose advanced republicans, the great majority of the country voters nominated men of social position who were mainly Monarchists.

The National Assembly met February 12, 1871, in the theatre at Bordeaux, and five days later Thiers was elected chief of the executive. On March 1st it ratified the preliminaries of the peace with Germany, and then the task committed to them was done. Its plain duty was now to retire, and call upon the nation to form a regular constituent body to decide on the future of the country. But it set up a claim to sovereign power. At least 500 (out of 653) members were avowed Monarchists. If they did not proclaim the monarchy, it was simply because they could not agree on the monarch. They hooted the republican minority; they suppressed the deputies of Paris; they proclaimed their antipathy to Paris; they insisted on transferring the capital to Versailles, and resolved to sit and govern away from Paris. Finally, they ordered up troops of the line from the provinces to overawe Paris, which was first to be disarmed and then treated as a conquered city.

The whole of Paris was outraged and alarmed by the reckless policy of the assembly and their avowed hostility to the capital. In the midst of the general discontent the workmen resolved to act. They seized the cannon that they might not be disarmed. They put themselves on the defensive. The *stroke* attempted by the government failed. Within twenty-four hours the workmen were

masters of Paris. They proclaimed the *commune* * (Saturday, March 18, 1871).

As a measure of conciliation, at the outset, the commune won over the greater part of the tenants in Paris by decreeing that all rents due since October, 1870, were remitted. Having thus secured the good will of the masses, they proceeded to make preparations to defend themselves against the National Assembly, during which terrible acts of terrorism, brutality, and pillage were committed.

One of the first acts of vandalism was the pulling down of the column in the place Vendôme (May 16th). The destruction of the house of Thiers followed.

A deadly vengeance against Paris was being planned by the National Assembly.

At the appointed signal (May 21st) the Germans, on their side, closed the city behind, while treachery opened it to the army of the assembly in the front. When they saw their cause was lost the Parisians proceeded (May 24th) to burn the Tuileries, the Palais Royal, the Hôtel-de-Ville, and other public buildings. To these horrors was added the foul murder of the Archbishop of Paris, with sixty-eight other persons, whom the communists had seized as hostages. Not before Sunday, May 28th, was order restored in Paris. While Thiers was crushing the commune in Paris, reorganizing the army, getting rid of the German occupation, he gave the monarchists the fullest opportunity to learn the hopelessness of their cause. When they perceived that Thiers was unwilling to further their plans they forced him to resign (May 24, 1873), and placed at the head of the administration a marshal of the empire, who was domestically related to the great legitimist families, MAC-MAHON. He was placed in power for seven years (septennate).

On February 25, 1875, the National Assembly gave France a constitution which is still in force (revised July, 1884, and June, 1885). It vests the legislative power in an assembly of two houses, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, and the executive in a chief magistrate

called President of the Republic. The total number of deputies is 584. The Senate is composed of 300 members, of whom 75 originally held their seats for life; but by the Senate bill of 1884 it was enacted that vacancies among the existing life-senatorships should be filled up as they arose by the election of ordinary nine-year senators.

Then, and not till then, the National Assembly reluctantly retired (March 8, 1876). At the time of his election, Marshal MacMahon enjoyed an amount of prestige which no other military man possessed. During his administration, however, he gradually lost the hold he had on the French people.

In 1878 it became evident that he had no political weight whatever, and that the country did not rely on him for the preservation of order. The senatorial elections of 1879 at length put the government firmly in possession of the republicans. MacMahon could not make himself the instrument of the new reforms in the administration, and when called on to sacrifice old army friends to political necessities he sent in his resignation (January 30, 1879).

Grévy, president of the chambers, was chosen as his successor (re-elected December, 1885).

The Russo-Turkish War of 1878.—During the period of the great migrations the Slavonians came into the Balkan Peninsula in all manner of characters—as captives, as mercenaries, as allies, and finally as conquerors. One of the oldest Slavonic migrations settled, about 450 A.D., in depopulated Mœsia, the tract between the Danube and the Balkan. They called themselves Sloveni, and their country Slovenia. In 679 they were conquered by the small but warlike *Finnic* tribe of the Bulgarians. They were soon absorbed by their Slavonic subjects, who retained the name of their conquerors—Bulgarians. Since 1396 they have been subject to the Turks.

In the beginning of the seventh century the northern provinces of the Byzantine Empire were overrun by the Tartar tribe of the Avars. To root out this swarm and re-people the land, the Emperor Heraclius invited into his dominions certain Slavonic tribes, the Serbians. They settled directly west of the Bulgarians, and gave the name of Serbia to their new home, which extended from the river *Timok*, in the east, to the Adriatic, at *Antivari*, in the west. The Turks conquered it in 1389. But in 1829 it recovered partially its independence, and from 1867 it simply acknowledged the Turkish overlordship. The Serbians who settled in the valley of the *Bosna* (an affluent of the Save) called

* *Commune* is the French word for corporation, or municipality. Every town and village in France has its *commune*, or municipality, in which is vested the corporate property (*Les biens communaux*). The similarity, however, of the French word *commune* (corporation) to the English word for expressing the doctrine of *community of goods* has led to a great amount of misconception and confusion. The revolution of the *commune* was entirely political. They proceeded to establish a commune in Paris, and expected their example to be followed by all the towns and villages in France, each declaring their communal independence and electing their own *communal council* which had to manage all the local affairs. Each communal council should elect some members of its own body to represent the commune in the *departmental council*. The departmental councils in their turn should elect some of their number to represent the department in the *national council*.

THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR.

tan would indorse her disapproval of the Berlin Memorandum. But the sultan, fearing the Russians, declared his willingness to accept it. This declaration put an end to his existence. He was deposed ; and, conforming to the time-honored usages of his race, made an end to his miserable existence (June 4, 1876).

His nephew, Murad V., was proclaimed in his stead ; but proving hopelessly imbecile, Murad's brother, Abdul-Hamid II., was raised to the Ottoman throne (August 31st).

General Ignatieff, the Russian ambassador, all-powerful during the reign of Abdul-Aziz, lost all his influence. The prestige of Russia seemed to be gone—that of England was in the ascendent. The new sultan, at the advice of England, proclaimed a six weeks' truce, to give the insurgents time to return to their allegiance, which they, however, declined. Serbia was now asked what she meant by lining her frontier with troops. The Serbian prince (Milan), wishing to gain time, gave an evasive reply. In the meanwhile the Serbian army was largely recruited by Russian soldiers and chiefly officered by Russians, who took those commands with the sanction of their government. When all was ready (June 26th), Prince Nicholas of Montenegro was declared Prince of the Herzegovina, and Bosnia proclaimed its union with Serbia. In the war that ensued the Turks were almost uniformly successful, and were only checked from a victorious advance on the Serbian capital by the peremptory interposition of Russia. By the peace of March 2, 1877, Serbia agreed to prevent invasions of Turkish territory by armed bands, to keep the Serbian fortresses in good repair, and hoist the Turkish flag on them jointly with that of Serbia.

In the midst of this war (November, 1876) Alexander II. of Russia made a public declaration that if Turkey did not give due guarantees for the better government of its Christian subjects he would force them, either in concert with his allies or by independent action. To preserve the peace, a *Conference of the Great Powers* was held in Constantinople (December, 1876), which urged on the sultan the adoption of a plan of internal reform substantially the same as that contained in the Andrassy note. The sultan, relying on Lord Derby's assurances, paid not the least attention to it. The conference finally drew up a protocol (March 31, 1877), recording the conclusion at which they had arrived about Turkey, which contained a vague threat that if the sultan did not put his affairs in order something would be done to compel him.

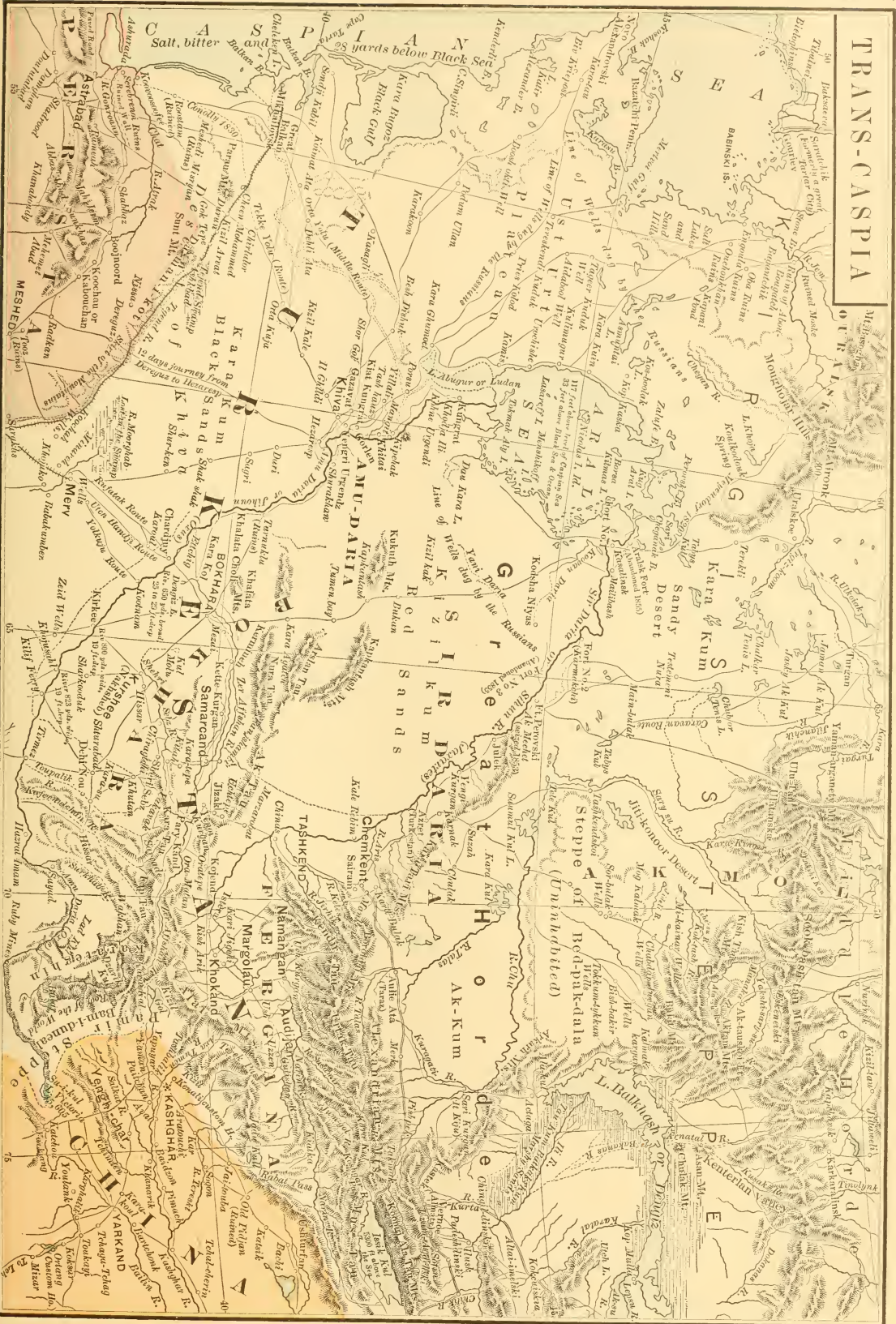
Russia declared, on her own responsibility, that if reform should not be carried out

within a brief period she would herself see to it.

The Turks seemed at first frightened into compliance ; but after Lord Derby again had assured them that *so far as England was concerned there should be no coercion*, they committed the immense folly of going to war. The Russians crossed successfully the Pruth (April, 1877) and the Danube, and, notwithstanding the heroic defence of Plevna by Osman Pacha, they entered (January 21, 1878) Adrianople. The Turks now sued for an armistice. But the Russians did not stop their march until they were before Constantinople. Then (January 31st) an armistice was concluded, which was followed (on March 3d) by the preliminary Treaty of San Stefano. The objections to this treaty were formulated by Lord Salisbury in an elaborate despatch, which opened the negotiations relative to the submission of the treaty to a European congress. Russia was not only willing to hold a congress, but declared that the questions affecting European interests would be debated and settled with the European powers, but that she reserved to herself the liberty of accepting or not accepting the result of the discussion. The congress was finally opened by Prince Bismarck, at Berlin (June 13, 1878). The result of its deliberations was the Treaty of Berlin, by which the affairs of Eastern Europe were regulated as follows :

The sultan lost the tribute of Serbia and Roumania, both of which were declared independent. His old enemy Montenegro, whose independence he never had acknowledged, obtained an accession of territory and access to the sea. Bulgaria was to form a self-governing tributary principality, under the suzerainty of the sultan, with a prince chosen by the free vote of the population and confirmed by the Porte, with the consent of the great powers.

Austria was charged with the occupation and administration of Bosnia and the Herzegovina. Roumelia was endowed with an *autonomy* created and guaranteed by the powers, which destroys the sultan's legislative control over it and reduces his sovereignty to a mere name. Finally, the sultan was obliged to cede the Island of Cyprus to England. In Asia—Kars, Ardahan, and Batoum were ceded to Russia, the district of Khotur to Persia, and the sultan pledged himself to carry out the requisite reforms in Armenia without loss of time, and to protect the inhabitants against the Kurds and Circassians. In fact, Turkey in Europe has virtually ceased to exist, and faith in the permanence of the Asiatic empire has been completely destroyed.



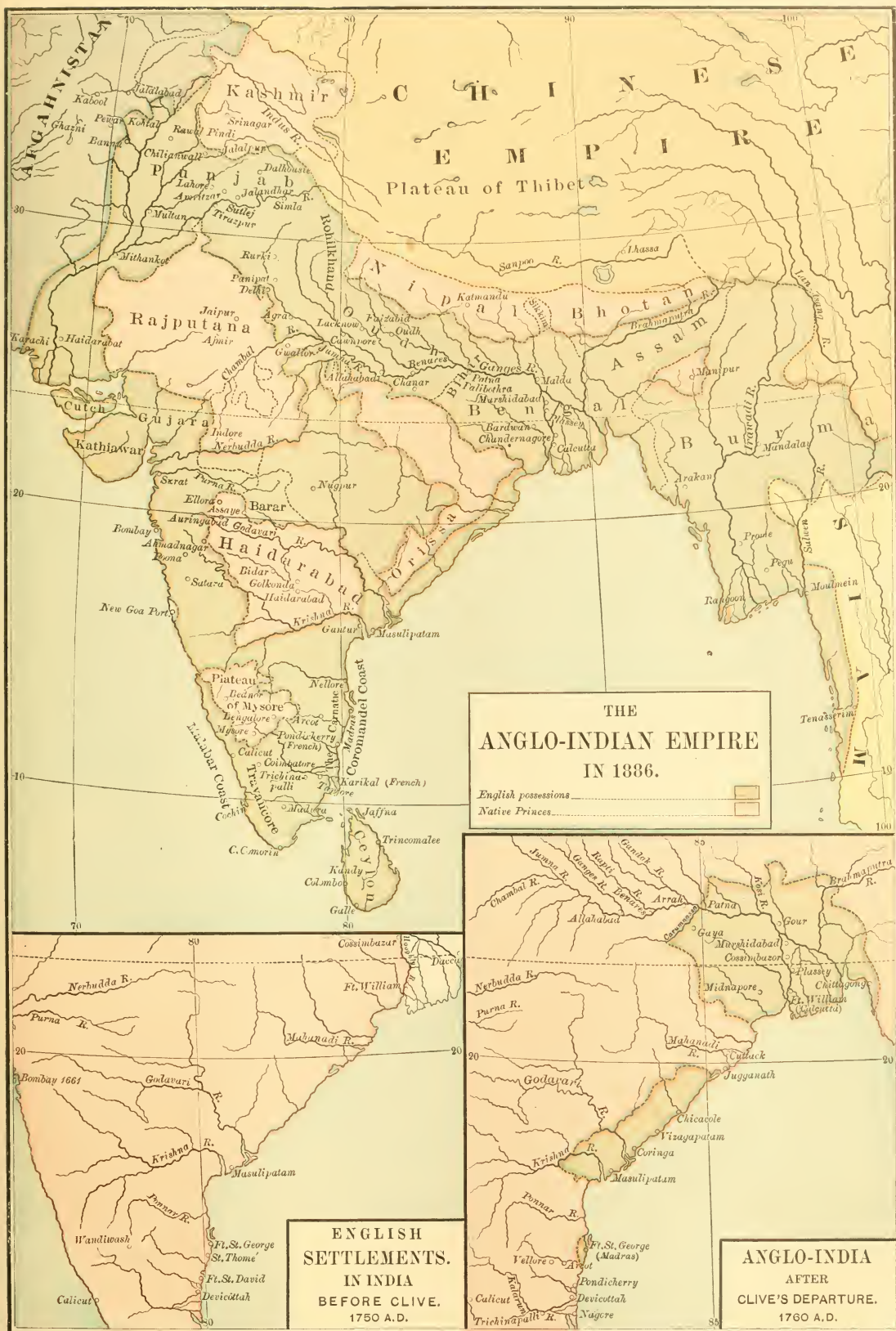
Egypt since 1874.—Since 1840, Egypt was held by Mehemet Ali as a hereditary pachalic. One of his descendants, Ismail Pacha, procured for himself, by a judicious expenditure of money, more and more privileges from his overlord, Sultan Abdul-Aziz, until he had almost acquired full and independent sovereignty. In 1874 he rounded out his territory toward the south by the annexation of Darfour, the sultan of which had invaded the Egyptian province of Kordofan. This annexation of Darfour proved to be a great deal more expensive than was expected, and brought Egypt on the verge of bankruptcy, from which it was only saved by the sale of the khedive's Suez Canal* share to England (1875). But now broke out a formidable war with Abyssinia, which resulted in repeated disasters to the Egyptian forces, which finally led to a successful insurrection against the khedive in Darfour (1877). Under these circumstances the financial embarrassment was continually increasing. As an only means of escape, he gave (1878) into the hands of an Anglo-French commission the whole control of the financial administration of the country. They unanimously recommended the surrender to the state of the khedive's vast private property. He was forced to acquiesce in this, and on August 22, 1878, the immense private possessions of the khedive and of the members of his family became state lands. Nubar Pacha was now intrusted with the formation of a new cabinet, in which Wilson, an Englishman, became Secretary of the Treasury, and Blignières, a Frenchman, President of the Board of Public Works.

This arrangement, which made Egypt virtually dependent upon England and France, soon became repugnant to both the khedive and the Egyptian people. The native officers were pushed into the background. The most lucrative stations were filled by foreigners, and the weight of taxation became intolerable. The cabinet was overthrown by a military insurrection (February 18, 1879), with the silent connivance of the khedive. But now he was informed by the western powers that if he did not at once abdicate, he should be deposed by force. When this was followed by a peremptory command of the sultan to abdicate in favor of his son Tewfik, he thought better to obey at once and left Egypt.

* One of the most remarkable engineering works of modern times is the Suez Canal, which was completed by the indomitable perseverance of its projector, Ferdinand de Lesseps. It is an *artificial strait*, connecting the Mediterranean and the Red Sea from both of which it derives its water-supply. It reduced the distance between Western Europe and India from 11,379 to 7,623 miles, equal to a saving of thirty-six days on the voyage. It was formally opened November 16, 1869.

Many of the privileges formerly accorded to the khedive were now revoked by the sultan. All treaties had, henceforth, to be submitted first to the sultan, without whose sanction no new loans could be contracted; and, although, to avoid offence to Mohammedan susceptibilities, a native cabinet was formed, the actual management of the finances was again placed in the hands of an Anglo-French commission. This commission pronounced Egypt bankrupt, and caused the formation of an international committee of liquidation, which declared Egypt formally bankrupt and appointed England and France as receivers. The government of Egypt, now consisting of the khedive, a council, and two controllers, was carried on as a financial undertaking, and as such it was a decided success. The army of 100,000 men left by Ismail was reduced to 9,000, throwing 91,000 officers and men out of employment. This created a great discontent, not only among the dismissed soldiers, but even among those who were retained. They broke out in open revolt September 9, 1881, when Colonel Achmet Bey el Araby, surrounded the khedive's palace and forced him to appoint a cabinet free from foreign control, in which Araby himself became Secretary of War.

To suppress this insurrection the western powers sent their fleets to the mouths of the Nile. The sight of the foreign vessels goaded the Alexandrian mob into fury—the Europeans were attacked, many killed, and the English consul was wounded (June, 1882). In retaliation the English fleet bombarded Alexandria (July 11th) and reduced it to ruins, whereupon Araby withdrew his troops to Cairo. Deposed by the khedive, he announced he would defend Egypt against the infidels, and fortified himself in the delta near Tel-el-Kebir. He was, however, easily conquered by General Garnet Wolseley, and banished by the English Government to Ceylon. The whole of Egypt surrendered (September, 1882), and Lord Dufferin organized a new system of administration. At this time the Soudan, for a long while impatient of Egyptian rule, thought the time had come to free itself. The Mahdi, who headed the revolt, succeeded in cutting to pieces an English force which was sent against him near El Obeid (November 3-5, 1885). Its commander, Hicks Pacha, was slain, and the Mahdi went unmolested northward to Kartoom, the capital of the Soudan, at the confluence of the White and Blue Nile. In order to save that city, where there were many Europeans, to pacify the tribes, and to provide for the deliverance of the garrisons, General Gordon was sent by the English Government to this town.



DIVISION OF AFRICA AMONG THE EUROPEAN POWERS.

As early as 1796, England, as a fruit of war with Holland, became possessed of a large territory in South Africa which was called Cape Colony. It was restored to the Dutch in 1803, but again occupied by the British three years later, and finally ceded to Great Britain in 1814. The total area is nearly 300,000 square miles and the population about 2,000,000. It has extremely rich copper mines and valuable coal deposits; but it is chiefly noted for its wonderful diamond mines discovered at Kimberley in 1867, which have since yielded about £100,000,000. Northwest of Cape Colony and adjoining, lies the British colony of Natal with an area of over 35,000 square miles and a population of about 1,000,000. The coal fields of the colony are extensive and important, and large forests of valuable timber abound. Besides these, its principal possessions, Great Britain holds much other territory in Central and East Africa, aggregating with Cape Colony and Natal about 2,500,000 square miles, and a population, chiefly native, of course, of some 40,000,000. Egypt and the Egyptian Sudan are nominally under the suzerainty of Turkey, but are really controlled by Great Britain, and will doubtless ere long be incorporated into the British Empire. The full authority of England, which was largely lost by the successful revolt of the Mahdi, 1882-85, was resumed by the victories of General Kitchener in 1898.

France has large territory in North, Central and West Africa—Algeria, The Guinea Coast, the Congo Region, Madagascar and other islands. Germany's possessions are somewhat smaller, but still large—scarcely less than 1,000,000 square miles and 10,000,000 inhabitants, in East and Southwest Africa. Italy, Portugal, Spain and Turkey also have part in the division of Africa. The Congo Free State is under the sovereignty of the King of the Belgians.

South African War.—In South Africa are two Republics—The Orange Free State and the Transvaal ("South African Republic"). The former is the older of the two organizations, having been founded originally by Boers who left Cape Colony in 1836. The latter, lying farther to the north, is much larger and stronger, having within its limits the extremely rich gold mines of Johannesburg, the most pro-

ductive in the world. This Republic also was settled by the Dutch who forsook English rule in South Africa. The relations between England and the Transvaal, always strained, have twice become hostile and developed into war—the first time in 1881, when the conflict ended with the advantage on the side of the Transvaal. Again in 1899, the complaints and demands of Great Britain on behalf of her citizens who were residents of the Transvaal brought on a war of great magnitude and severity. The Orange Free State, as bound by treaty, joined arms with her sister republic.

During the first few months the English met with serious reverses. At the close of the year (1899) Field Marshal Lord Roberts was put in command of military operations, with Lord Kitchener as chief of staff, and a reinforcement of 100,000 men. In March, 1900, Bloemfontein, capital of the Orange Free State, surrendered, and in June, Pretoria, capital of the Transvaal, fell into the hands of the British. The annexation of both republics to the British Empire was proclaimed by Lord Roberts. But the Boers were still unconquered. Though unable any longer to put an army in the field, they carried on a fierce guerilla war. At the end of the year (1900) Lord Roberts returned to England, where he was received with royal honors, and Lord Kitchener was placed at the head of the British forces in South Africa. Guerilla fighting continued throughout the year 1901, the Boers hoping to wear out the patience of the English people. The war ended May 31, 1902, when terms of surrender were signed by the Boer representatives.

END OF VICTORIA'S REIGN.

January 22, 1901, Queen Victoria died at Osborne. Her reign had lasted more than sixty-two years. Some of its important events were the Repeal of the Corn Laws (1846), the Crimean War (1854-56), the Disestablishment of the Irish Church (1869), the Opening of the Suez Canal (1869), the Proclamation of Victoria as Empress of India (1877), and the Queen's Jubilees (1887 and 1897).

Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne on the death of his mother, and January 24, was proclaimed King Edward VII. of Great Britain and Ireland and Emperor of India.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NORTH AMERICA.

VOYAGES OF DISCOVERY.

Northmen, Norsemen, Scandinavians are some of the names applied to the early inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden (*see page 66*). For the first eight centuries of our era, they are hidden from our view in their remote Northern home : but with the opening of the ninth century their piratical crafts are to be seen creeping along the Western and Southern coasts of Europe, even venturing to cross the Atlantic and settling in **Iceland**. These first Scandinavian colonists were men fleeing from **Harold Haarfager** (*the Beautiful-haired*), King of Norway, who, in the battle of **Hafursfiord** (*see Plate XXVIII.*), in 872, forced the rebellious Jarls (*nobles*) either to submit to his power or leave their native land as outlaws.

Then it was that some of the noblest Norwegians left their native land forever, and set sail in search of new homes. They settled in **Iceland** about 874. Soon the population exceeded 50,000 souls.

The growth of the new community in wealth and culture was surprisingly rapid, and in the twelfth century there was a flourishing literature. Especial attention was paid to history. From various Icelandic chronicles we learn that in 876 one of the settlers named **Gunnbjörn**, was driven by foul weather to some point on the coast of Greenland, where he and his crew contrived to pass the winter. In 983 Eric the Red, a Norwegian outlaw, determined to search for the land Gunnbjörn had discovered. In the next three years he and his bold **vikings** (*sons of the fiord*) explored the coasts of Greenland. At length they found a suitable place for a home at the head of the **Igaliko fiord**, not far from the site of the modern *Ju-lianeshaab*. In contrast with most of its bleak surroundings the place might well be called **Greenland**, and so Eric named it. The name thus given to this chosen spot has gradually been extended to the whole of the vast continental region north of Davis Strait, for, by far the greater part of which it is a *flagrant misnomer*. A settlement was established at the head of Igaliko fiord, which was called **Brattahlid**. From this place **LEIF**, the famous son of **Eric the Red**, sailed (about 1000 A.D.) to the southward. They finally came upon a

barren coast, covered with big flat stones. They called it accordingly **Helluland** (*Slate-land*). This must have been either **Labrador** or **Newfoundland**. Farther south they came upon a wooded country, which they called **Markland** (*Woodland*), and was, most probably, our **Nova Scotia**. Going still south they reached, within three days, a coast abounding in wild grapes.

Leif, accordingly, called the country **Vinland**. This was the farthest point south reached by them. It must have been somewhere on the coast of *Northern Massachusetts*. They wintered here, and in the spring of 1001 Leif returned to Greenland with a cargo of timber. When once the Northmen had found their way to Vinland, it seems marvellous that such active sailors could have avoided repeated visits and an eventual settlement upon the continent of North America.

But the discovery had no consequences. Vinland was *discovered* but never *colonized*.

So far as existing Icelandic records inform us, there was no voyage to Vinland after 1121.

The latest pre-Columbian voyage, mentioned as having occurred in the Northern seas, was that of the Polish pilot **John Szkolny**, who, in the service of King Christian I., of Denmark (*see page 125*), is said to have sailed to Greenland in 1476, and to have touched upon the Coast of Labrador.

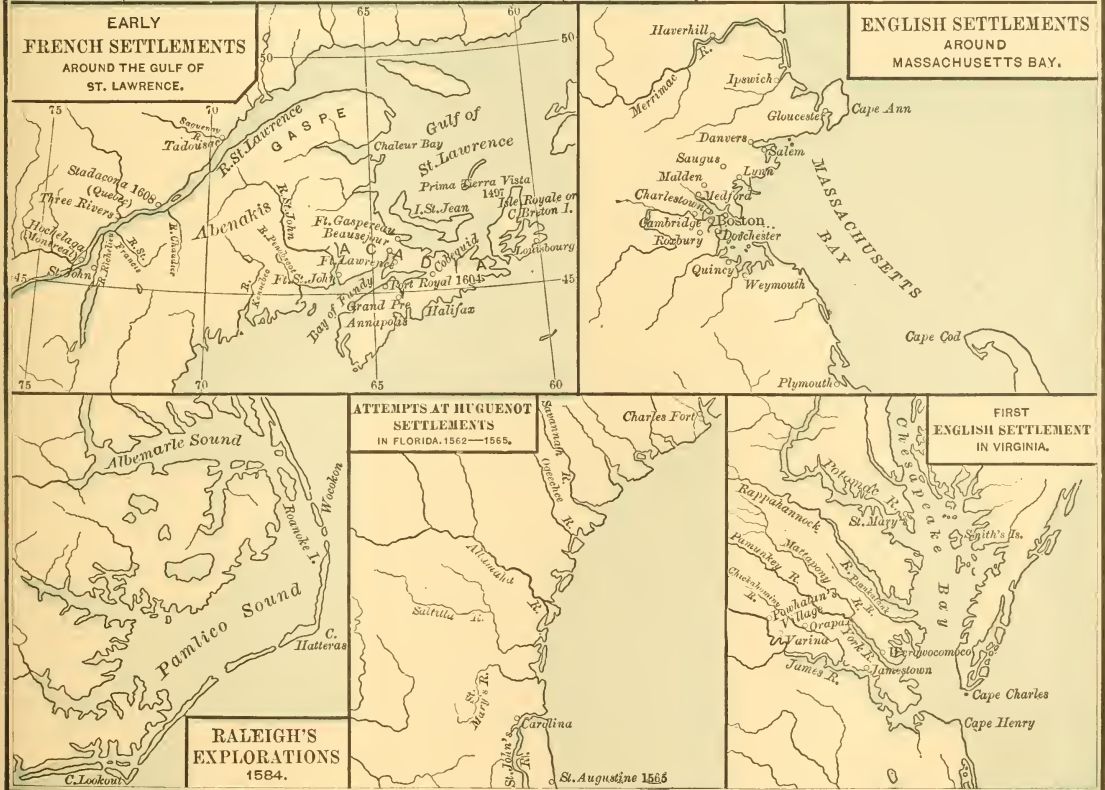
These pre-Columbian voyages were quite barren of results of historic importance. In point of colonization they produced two ill-fated settlements on the Greenland coast, and nothing more. The discovery of America by **LEIF**, son of Eric the Red, cannot diminish the claims of **COLUMBUS**.

The wandering Scandinavians had reached the shores of America first on the northern shore of Massachusetts, which they had given the name of **Vinland**.

But the memory of these voyages seems totally to have passed away.

Never to be forgotten and brimful of results were the voyages of **CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS**.*

* *Italian*, Cristoforo Colombo; *Spanish*, Christobal Colon; *Latin*, Christophorus Columbus. (*See page 109.*)



These were four in all, covering the years from 1492 to 1504. His first voyage, in view of its far-reaching consequences, was the most important in the history of the world. Returning to Spain the next year he was received with almost royal honors, and was sent back across the Atlantic with all that he wanted of men, vessels, and supplies. His third and fourth voyages began in 1498 and 1502, and it was during the former that he got his only glimpse of the mainland of the New World. He saw South America at the mouth of the Orinoco River. He thought it another island, like those he had previously discovered, all of which he supposed were off the east coast

of Asia. As that coast was called the Indies, and the new islands had been reached by sailing westward, they came to be called the West Indies, and their inhabitants Indians. On his fourth and last voyage Columbus explored the shores of Honduras and the Isthmus of Panama in search of a strait leading to the Indian Ocean. Of course he did not find it, and returned to Spain, where he died in 1506, poor and broken hearted.

Of the greatness of his discovery Columbus never knew. It never entered his mind that he had found a new world. He died firm in the belief that he had done only what he set out to do—discover a direct westward route to Asia.

ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION BY THE LATIN RACES.

First Attempts.—The Portuguese were the first among the European nations who became acquainted with the eastern coast of the present United States. Since the very beginning of the sixteenth century they had sailed along the whole coast from *Florida* to *Cape Cod*, and had carefully mapped it out. But the rivalry of Spain and Portugal led to secrecy regarding all discoveries. Discarding the rough shores themselves, they were nevertheless unwilling to let others reap the fruit of their discoveries.

About the same time that the Portuguese explored the coast from south to north, John Cabot explored it from north to south. He was a Venetian captain, living in England, who sailed (1497) out of Bristol in search of a northwest passage to India. He came upon the coast of North America near *Cape Breton*, and followed it south and westward for 900 miles. But the English paid little heed to his discoveries.

Hardy fishermen from France were the next to touch our coast. The fishing-grounds near Europe becoming gradually exhausted, they ventured each year farther westward until at last they came to the coasts of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia; but they troubled themselves very little about the land near by. A few captains explored the coast a little. *Cape Breton* owes its name to the fishermen of Brittany. John Denys is said to have explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence as early as 1506.

A little later (1512) the Spanish governor of Porto Rico, Ponce de Leon, touched our coast. It happened to be Easter Sunday, *Pascua Florida* (i.e., Flowery Easter), and so he named the country *Florida*.

The French in the North.—Twelve years later (1524), Verrazano, an Italian sailor, was sent out by Francis I. of France. He reached our coast near the present *Cape Fear*, and, sail-

ing northward, visited, probably, the bay of New York and Narragansett Bay. The account he gave of the country made such an impression on Francis I. that ten years later (1534) he sent two ships to America, under the command of Jacques Cartier, who on his first voyage cruised about the Gulf of St. Lawrence, to which he gave that name. In his second voyage (1535) he went up the river St. Lawrence as far as the rapids. No lasting settlement was made. Still, the French, on account of these discoveries, regarded the region of the St. Lawrence as belonging to them.

The Spaniards in the South.—While the French were ineffectually striving to plant colonies along the St. Lawrence in the north, the Spaniards were doing the same in the south in Florida. Narvaez, having landed, in 1528, with 300 men at Tampa Bay, marched to St. Mark's Bay, where, disgusted with the country, they built boats and pushed out into the gulf. Being shipwrecked, they wandered about for more than six years. Four finally reached the Pacific coast, where they fell in with Spaniards and were cared for. Undeterred by the fate of Narvaez, eleven years later (1539) Hernando de Soto landed at Tampa Bay and set out on the track of Narvaez. He discovered (1541) the Mississippi, which he crossed near the site of the present city of Memphis. He soon afterward died, and his body was sunk in the Father of Waters. His companions, descending the river, reached the Gulf of Mexico and coasted westward along the shores of Texas. On September 10, 1543, the survivors reached **Tampico Bay**. (See *Plate LIX*.) After this the work of founding colonies in North America languished, and in 1561 Philip II. announced that there would be no further attempts to colonize that country. As no gold was to be found, the chief reason for occupying Florida was to keep out the French, and thanks to the French civil wars there seemed to be no danger of their coming for the present.

THE FOUNDATION OF NEW FRANCE.

Just about this time, and in consequence of the civil war, Frenchmen did come to Florida. COLIGNY (see page 122) conceived the plan of founding a **Huguenot colony** in America.

Coligny's attempt was made upon the coast of Florida, under the lead of **Jean Ribaut**, who, on May day, 1562, reached the St. John's River, whence he coasted northward as far as the spot to which he gave the name of **Port Royal**. Here they built a small fortress called **Fort Charles** (see Plate LVIII.), in honor of the young king Charles IX.

During three years, the French maintained themselves in Florida, enlarged from time to time by new emigrants.

In 1565 the long-dreaded Spanish expedition landed.

Pedro Menendez de Aviles had pledged himself to conquer for Spain this territory.

The struggle lasted but a few days, and **Menendez**, as conqueror, took possession of the ruined forts. "*Are you Catholics or Lutherans?*" he demanded of his prisoners. "*We all belong to the reformed faith,*" answered Ribaut. All were put to death. Above the heap of corpses Menendez placed the inscription, "*NOT AS FRENCHMEN BUT AS HERETICS.*" Three years later, on this self-same spot, lay the bodies of the Spanish garrison. Dominic de Gourgues, who had sworn to avenge the wrongs of France, put to sea with three small vessels equipped at his own expense.

The Spaniards had established their principal settlement at some distance from the first landing place, and had named it **St. Augustine**. Menendez, in founding it in 1565, had built the *first town within the bounds of the United States*. De Gourgues attacked unexpectedly Fort San Mateo; all were killed or taken; they were hanged on the same trees which had but lately served for the execution of the French. "*THIS I DO NOT AS TO SPANIARDS, BUT AS TO TRAITORS, THIEVES, AND MURDERERS,*" was the inscription placed by de Gourgues above their heads.

When he again put to sea there remained not one stone upon another of San Mateo. France was avenged, but Florida remained in the hands of Spain. The French adventurers went carrying to the north their ardent hopes and their indomitable courage.

For a long while expeditions and attempts at French colonization had been directed toward Canada; **James Cartier** (1535) had

taken possession of its coasts under the name of **NEW FRANCE**. He explored the lower part of the river St. Lawrence, and found an Iroquois town, named *Hochelaga*, on an eminence, which he called **Montreal**.

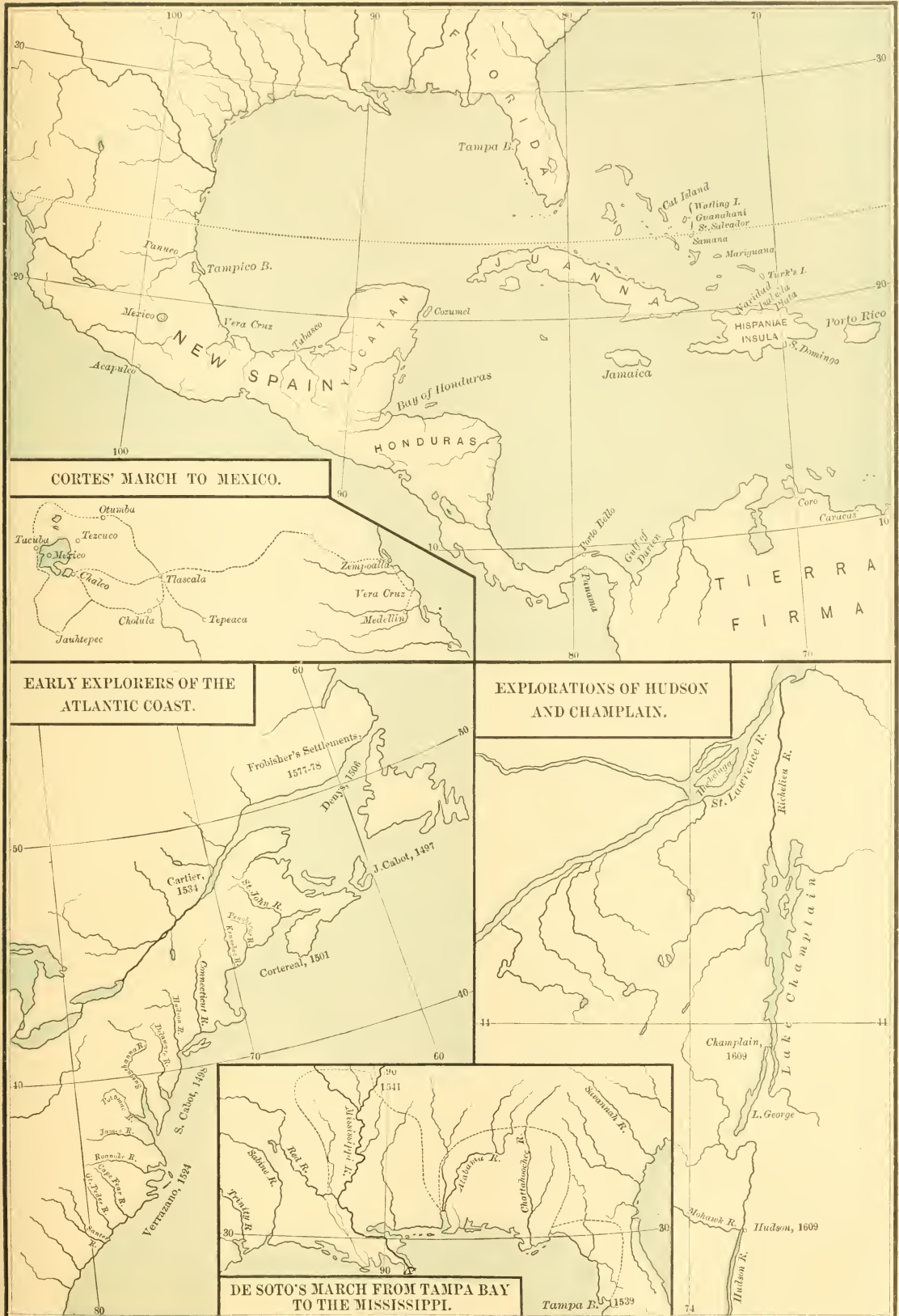
SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN DU BROUAGE, after long and perilous voyages, enlisted in the company which **de Monts** had formed for the trade in furs on the northern coast of America. Appointed viceroy of Acadia, de Monts set sail on April 7, 1604. For many years he and his comrades struggled against the natural difficulties of their enterprise.

In the meanwhile religious zeal had been reviving in France. Missionary ardor animated the powerful Society of Jesus especially. At their instigation a pious woman, the marchioness of **Guercheville**, profited by the distress among the first settlers of the French colony. She purchased their rights and having got the king to cede to her the sovereignty of New France, *from the St. Lawrence to Florida*, she dedicated all her personal fortune to a mission among the American Indians. Besides the adventurers, gentlemen, and traders, there set out a large number of Jesuits. **CHAMPLAIN**, who accompanied them, became, in 1606, the first governor of the town of **Quebec**. Champlain died at Quebec, on Christmas Day, 1635, after twenty-seven years' efforts and sufferings in the service of the nascent colony. Bold and enterprising, endowed with indomitable perseverance and rare practical faculties, he had proved himself an intrepid negotiator with the savage tribes, and a wise and patient administrator.

New France was founded, in spite of the sufferings of the early colonists, thanks to their courage, their fervent enthusiasm, and the support afforded them by the religious zeal of their friends in Europe.

The Jesuit fathers every day extended their explorations, sharing, with the illustrious **LA SALLE**, the glory of the great discoveries of the West. Champlain had before this dreamed of and sought for a passage across the continent, leading to the Southern seas and permitting of commerce with India and Japan.

LA SALLE discovered **Ohio** and **Illinois**, navigated the great lakes, crossed the **Mississippi**, and pushed on as far as **Texas**. After taking possession of **Louisiana** in the name of Louis XIV., abandoned by the majority of his companions, and thwarted by his enemies and rivals, he fell (1687) beneath the blows of a few mutineers. He left the field open after him to the innumerable travellers of every nation and every language, who were one day to leave their mark on those measureless tracts.



ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION BY THE TEUTONIC RACES.

The First English Settlements.—In 1584 the English made their first attempt to colonize the New World. Walter Raleigh landed on Roanoke Island, in Pamlico Sound (North Carolina). The country was called, after the maiden queen Elizabeth, Virginia. This name was then applied to all the country lying between the French dominion of Canada and the Spanish dominion of Florida. Twice the English attempted to plant a colony (1585 and 1587), and twice they failed. The French succeeded better in establishing a lasting colony on the St. Lawrence. The second settlement, which still exists, on the eastern coast, was Quebec, founded in 1608 by Samuel de Champlain.

Six years before this, Bartholomew Gosnold discovered a cape to which he gave the name of Cape Cod, which it has ever since borne. Pleased with the land he had discovered, he persuaded a number of men to form the Virginia Company, which ultimately received the right to hold all the land from Cape Fear to the St. Croix River. This territory was divided into two districts. The northern part was controlled by the Plymouth Company; the southern part by the London Company. By this London Company was made the *first permanent settlement by Englishmen in America*.

They explored the shores of a river which they named the James, after the then king of England—James I. They landed (May 13, 1607) on a low peninsula, and called the place Jamestown. They had named the two capes at the entrance of the bay Cape Henry and Cape Charles, after the king's sons. Jamestown existed for nearly seventy years, when it was burned in Bacon's rebellion (1676).

The Early Colonies.—From this time the European democracy began to turn their attention toward emigration, in the hope that on the free soil of America they might raise the edifice of a new state and a new church in their own simple style.

Dutch, Swedes, and Englishmen began to emigrate to the shores which were included in the grant of the Virginia Company. They were for the most part Protestants, and of the strictest morality. The greater number were Puritans and Quakers. The emigrants had too much of the reserved and exclusive spirit of Protestants to form connection with the Indians, whom they regarded as scarcely human; but they were also conscientious enough to *purchase* the land from the natives. They followed their Teutonic bent to keep themselves apart in small and varied communities. Thus a Dutch town, with a municipality, was

formed (1615), in *New Amsterdam*; a theocracy, after the pattern of Geneva, in *Massachusetts* (1620); in *Virginia* (1624), an English province with high-church institutions; in *Maryland* (1632), a feudal principality; in *Carolana* (1653), a government consisting of eight lordships, with a great landed aristocracy; in *Connecticut* (1633), a pure democracy; and in *Pennsylvania*, a cosmopolitan Quaker republic.

New England.—The settlements between the Kennebec and the Connecticut Rivers were soon known as New England. By the end of the seventeenth century they had arranged themselves into four separate colonies. They were:

I. *Massachusetts*, formed, in 1629, by the union of Massachusetts and Plymouth, and, since 1652, with its northern dependency of Maine (which became a separate State in 1820).

II. *Rhode Island*, formed, in 1644, by the union of Rhode Island and Providence.

III. *Connecticut*, formed by the union of Connecticut and New Haven (1665).

IV. *New Hampshire*, annexed, in 1677, by Massachusetts; but since 1680 a separate colony.

These four New England States formed a distinct geographical group, with a marked political and religious character of their own.

Virginia and its Neighbors.—Meanwhile, at some distance to the south, around *Virginia* as their centre, grew up another group of colonies, with a history and character in many ways unlike those of New England. To the south of Virginia was, since 1653, the colony of *Carolana*, reaching from the Atlantic to New Mexico. In 1729 it was divided into *North Carolina* and *South Carolina*. To the north of Virginia was Maryland (1639).

New Netherlands.—But between these two groups of English colonies, in the strictest sense, lay a region in which English settlement took the form of conquest from another European power. Earlier (1613) than any English settlement, except Virginia, the great colony of the *United Provinces* had arisen on Long Island and the neighboring mainland. It bore the name of New Netherlands, with its capital of New Amsterdam.

New Sweden.—To the south, on the shores of Delaware Bay, the other great power of the seventeenth century founded the colony of New Sweden (1638).

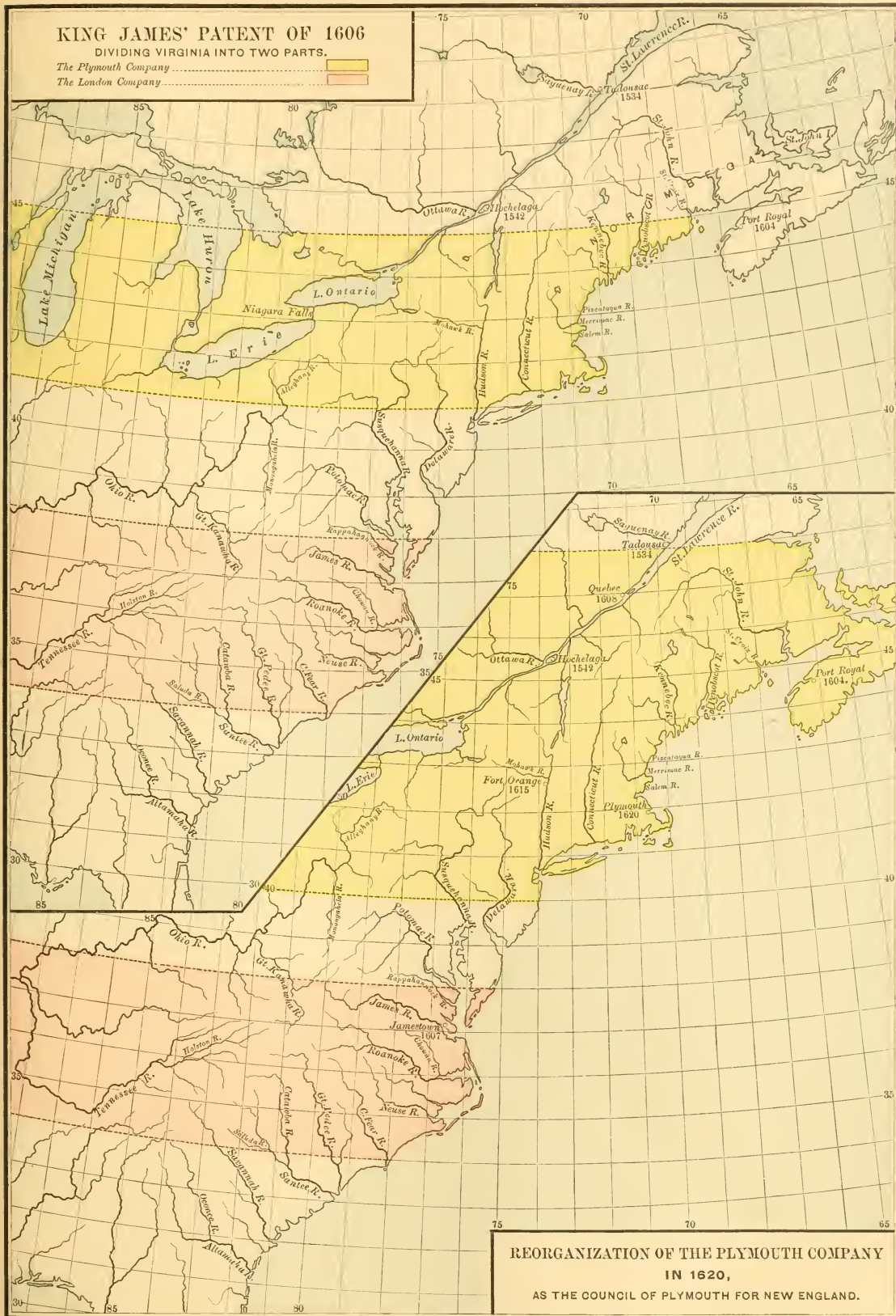
The English Conquest.—Three European nations, closely allied in race, speech, and creed, were thus for a while side by side on the eastern coasts of America. But the three settlements were fated to merge together, and that by force of arms. A local war, in 1655,

KING JAMES' PATENT OF 1606

DIVIDING VIRGINIA INTO TWO PARTS.

The Plymouth Company 

The London Company 

REORGANIZATION OF THE PLYMOUTH COMPANY
IN 1620,

AS THE COUNCIL OF PLYMOUTH FOR NEW ENGLAND.

VARIOUS ENGLISH GRANTS.

1625-1649 A.D.



added *New Sweden* to the *New Netherlands*; a war between England and the United Provinces, in 1664, gave the *New Netherlands* to England. *New Amsterdam* became *New York* (August 27, 1664), and gave its name to the colony which was to become the greatest State of the Union.

The Later Colonies.—Meanwhile, the gap which was still left began to be filled up by other English settlements. *East and West Jersey* began as two distinct colonies (1676), which were, in 1680, united into one. The great colony of *Pennsylvania* next arose (1682), from which the small one of Delaware was parted off in 1703.

Fifty years after the work of the benevolent Penn came the work of the no less benevolent Oglethorpe, who, pitying those who were oppressed by the harsh laws against debtors, founded the thirteenth and last of the original colonies, *Georgia*, as an asylum for poor debtors, where they could begin life anew (1733).

Early Development of the Colonies.—In their general history these States followed the star of England. Unobserved in the beginning, they formed their constitutions freely, according to the demands of the times. During the existence of the English Republic (1650–1660) the spirit of democracy planted itself securely; under the restoration it suffered much injury and danger in its charters, liberties, self-government, and property. After 1688 each separate State returned to its previous institutions. Democracy was, after a long struggle, by that time firmly established. The same spirit of democracy which grew so rapidly in the State entered also into the affairs of the Church, where, however, it moved more slowly and on a more troubled way. In some few States, such as Carolina, New Nether-

lands, and Maryland under the philanthropic Lord Baltimore, all religions were tolerated from the beginning, although they were not granted equal privileges. In Virginia, conformity was required to the views of the high-church party; but even among the Puritans of Massachusetts Calvinistic intolerance excluded every other creed from the State, and persecuted Anabaptists and Quakers by exile and death.

When Roger Williams urged an entire liberty of conscience in Massachusetts, and a separation of the Church from all matters appertaining to the State, he was obliged to fly from the country. Hereupon he founded, in 1636, a small, new society in Rhode Island, upon the principles of entire liberty of conscience and the uncontrolled power of the majority in secular concerns, which became also the constitution of Connecticut.

French and English.—The French settlers in North America surrounded the English colonies of the coast both in the rear and on either side; they instigated the Indians to attack them, and by a more rapid increase of their settlements they hoped, in some future time, easily to advance upon the coast; but this aim of gaining an advantage over the English colonies by their geographical position was defeated by the indifference and incapacity for colonization of the French themselves. The first half-century of the French settlement in Louisiana (1700–1750) did not exhibit one-tenth part of the population and of the results which were produced in that time in New England. This fact only so much the more stirred up the jealousy of France toward England, which already derived but too much nourishment in their religious differences, in their diverse origin, and in the geographical proximity of the two countries.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH STRUGGLE FOR THE SUPREMACY IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE ENGLISH COLONIES DURING THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

Wealth and Education.—During the eighteenth century the colonies were growing fast in numbers and in wealth. Before the middle of the century their population amounted to nearly a million and a half, one-fifth of which were negroes.

As yet the southern colonies were the more productive. While Virginia and Maryland boasted of their tobaccos, and the Carolinas

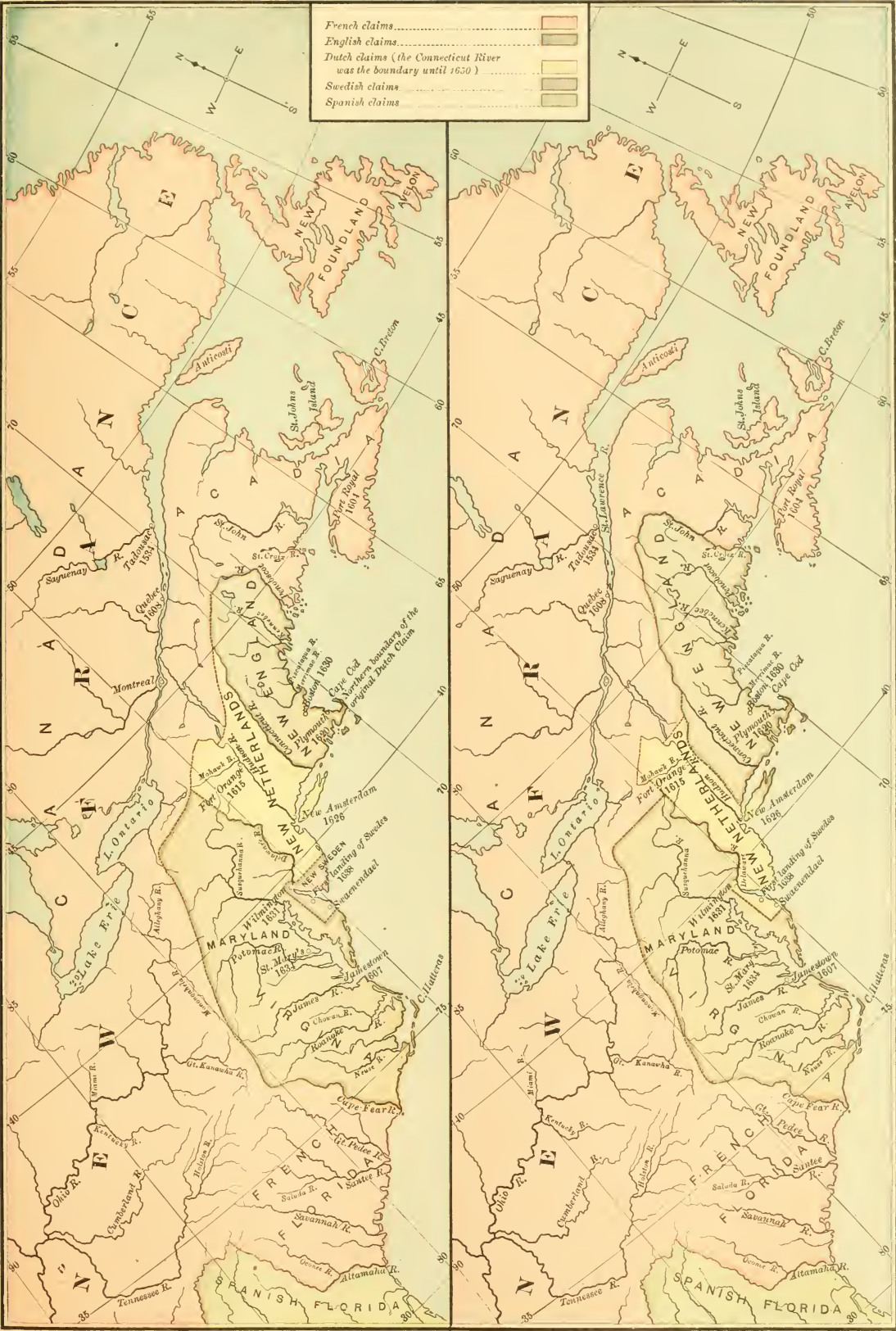
and Georgia of their rice and indigo, the northern colonies were restricted to their whale and cod fisheries, their corn crops, and their timber trade.

New England, the poorest of all, stood, however, far ahead of all colonies, either north or south, in education; for the settlement of the Puritans had been followed at once by the establishment of a system of local schools. *Every township*, it was enacted, *after the Lord hath increased them to the number of*

1643 A.D.

1655 A.D.

PLATE LXII



fifty householders, shall appoint one to teach all children to read and write; and when any town shall increase to the number of a hundred families, they shall set up a grammar school. The result of this was that in the middle of the eighteenth century New England was the one part of the world where every man and woman was able to read and write.

Government.—In the main features of their outer organization the whole of the colonies stood fairly as one. There was the same outer diversity, and the same real unity in the political tendency and organization of the States. Whether the *spirit* of the colony was democratic, moderate, or oligarchical, its *form* of government was pretty much the same. The original rights of the proprietor, or grantee, of the earliest settlement had in all cases, save in those of Pennsylvania and Maryland, either ceased to exist or fallen into desuetude.

The government of each colony lay in a *House of Assembly* elected by the people at large, with a *Council* and a *Governor*. The governor was generally appointed by the crown, but in Connecticut and Rhode Island chosen by the colonists. With the appointment of these governors all administrative interference, on the part of England, practically ended. The assemblies alone exercised the right of internal taxation, and they exercised it sparingly. The colonies contributed to England's resources not by taxation, but by the monopoly of her trade. It was from England that they might import, to England alone that they might send their exports. But this restriction of trade was more than compensated by the commercial privileges which they enjoyed as British subjects.

THE ANGLO-FRENCH STRUGGLE.

The French Pretensions.—As yet, therefore, there was nothing to break the good-will which the colonists felt toward the mother country, while the danger of French aggression drew them closely to it; for, populous as they had become, the English settlements still lay mainly along the seaboard of the Atlantic. It was not till the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, that the pretensions of France drew the eyes of the colonists to the interior of the continent. Planted firmly in Louisiana and Canada, France openly claimed the whole country west of the Alleghanies as its own, and its governors now ordered all English settlers or merchants to be driven from the valleys of the Ohio or Mississippi. The English, of course, retaliated. The original French settlers were driven from Acadia, and an English colony was planted there

whose settlement of *Halifax* still bears the name of its founder (Lord Halifax).

The English force their Way into the Ohio Valley.—The *Ohio Company* was formed in 1748, and its agents made their way to the valleys of that river and the Kentucky, while envoys from Virginia and Pennsylvania drew closer the alliance between their colonies and the Indian tribes across the mountains. The French were not slow in accepting the challenge; and planted, in defiance, Fort *Duquesne*, on the fork of the Ohio (1754).

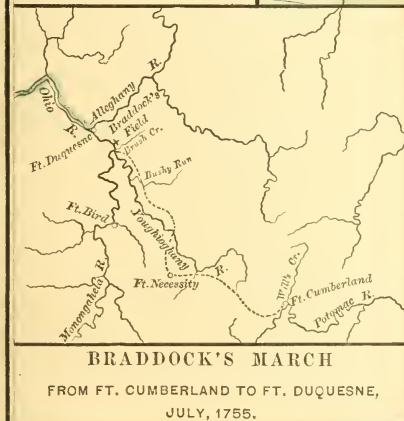
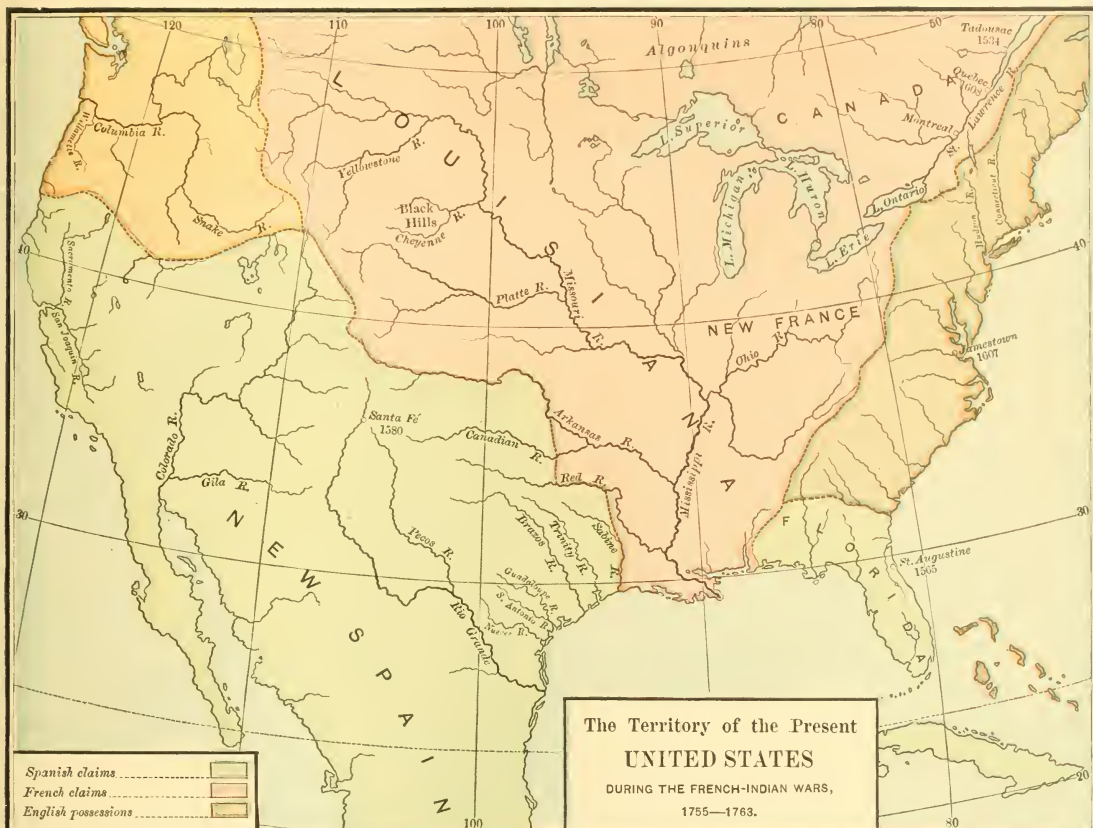
The Marquis of Montcalm, who was now governor of Canada, fearlessly carried out the plans of annexation. The three forts of *Duquesne*, *Niagara*, and *Ticonderoga* were linked together by a chain of lesser forts, which cut off the English colonists from all access to the west. The bulk of the Indians from Canada to the Mississippi had been attached to the cause of France; and the value of their aid was shown in 1755, when General Braddock marched on Fort Duquesne. The force was utterly routed, and he himself slain.

But three years later a force from Philadelphia and Virginia, guided and inspired by the courage of George Washington, finally subdued Fort Duquesne (November 25, 1758). The name of Pittsburg, which was given to their new conquest, still commemorates the enthusiasm of the colonists for the great minister who opened to them the west. He had won the sympathies of the colonists by an order which gave their provincial officers equal rank with the royal officers in the field. They raised, at Pitt's call, 20,000 men, and taxed themselves heavily for their support.

The Conquest of Canada.—Three expeditions were simultaneously directed against the French line—one to the Ohio Valley, one against Ticonderoga, while a third sailed to the mouth of the St. Lawrence and reduced the whole province of Cape Breton. In 1759 Ticonderoga and Niagara were taken. The capture of the three forts was the close of the French effort to bar the advance of the colonists to the valley of the Mississippi, and to place in other than English hands the destinies of North America.

The capture of Quebec by Wolfe (1759), and of Montreal by Amherst (1760), put, for always, an end to the dream of a French empire in America.

By the Peace of Paris (February 10, 1763) France gave up Canada, Nova Scotia, and Louisiana as far as the Mississippi, while they resigned the rest of that province to Spain in compensation for its surrender of Florida to the British crown.



THE FOUNDATION OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC.

BEFORE THE APPEAL TO ARMS.

The Colonies and the English Debt.—After the conclusion of the *Peace of Paris*, in 1763, the English debt stood at \$700,000,000. Provision had to be made to pay the interest on it, and as it had been partly incurred in the defence of the American colonies, it was the general opinion of Englishmen that the colonies should contribute their just share toward the relief of the burdens left by the war. For these colonies were looked upon as being as completely English soil as England itself, and in their relation to the Government there was no difference between an Englishman of Massachusetts and an Englishman of Kent. No bounds could be fixed for the supremacy of *the King in Parliament* over every subject of the Crown, and the colonist of America was as absolutely a subject as the ordinary Englishman. What the colonists urged against this was, that they were, no doubt, Englishmen, but Englishmen who were parted from England by 3,000 miles of ocean. They could not, if they would, share the common political life of men at home; nature had imposed on them their own political life. No act of Parliament could annihilate the Atlantic.

No Taxation without Representation.—Taxation and representation went hand in hand. America had no representatives in Parliament. The representatives of the colonies met in their own colonial assemblies, and they were quite willing to grant supplies to the mother country. Massachusetts marked accurately the position she took: "*The power of taxing is the grand banner of British liberty. If that is once broken down, all is lost.*"

This distinction was at once accepted by the assembly of every colony, and it was with their protest and offer that they despatched Benjamin Franklin, as their agent, to England, to announce that the colonists were willing to *tax themselves* for the general defence. Unluckily, Franklin could give no assurance as to a union of the colonies for the purpose of such taxation, and without such an assurance the Government had no mind to change its plans.

The Stamp Act.—In February, 1765, therefore, Parliament passed the Stamp Act, a tax on all legal documents issued within the col-

onies. Vigorously as he had struggled against the act, Franklin saw no other course for the colonies but that of submission. But submission was the very last thing they dreamed of. Everywhere through New England riots broke out on the news of the arrival of the stamped paper, and the frightened collectors resigned their posts.

The Assembly of Virginia was the first to formally deny the right of the British Parliament to meddle with internal taxation, and to demand the repeal of the act. Massachusetts not only adopted the denial and the demand as its own, but proposed a congress of delegates from all the colonial assemblies to provide for common and united action, and in October, 1765, this congress met in New York. Nine colonies took part in it. For the first time, the whole country had a common cause, and there was need that the people should consult together. This congress was the beginning of the Union. "*There ought to be no New England man, no New Yorker, known on this continent,*" said one of its members, "*but all of us Americans.*" This congress demanded the *repeal of the Stamp Act*, and the people everywhere showed their determination to support this demand. The Stamp Act was repealed March, 1766, for the English Government saw that it was impossible to enforce it.

The Boston Tea-party.—This withdrawal was accompanied, however, with an offensive declaration of the supreme rights of the mother country over her colonies. George III. regretted this repeal deeply: "All men feel," the king wrote, "that this fatal compliance has increased the pretensions of the Americans to absolute independence." In America, the news of the repeal had been received with universal joy, and taken as a close of the strife. On both sides, however, there remained a pride and irritability which only wise handling could have allayed. But it became soon clear that wise handling was not to be expected of the English Government. A renewed attempt was made in 1767 to raise duties in America on tea, paper, painters' colors, and glass. They were all abandoned, however, in 1770, except the duty on tea.

When, in 1773, permission was given to the East India Company to export their surplus stock to America, these cargoes were destroyed



in Boston Harbor (December 18th). The quarrel was now becoming serious and complicated.

First Continental Congress.—In the spring of 1774, acts were passed by the British Parliament for suppressing the Port of Boston, for abolishing the charter and democratic government of Massachusetts, and for authorizing the governors of colonies to send home persons guilty of rebellion, to be tried by the Court of King's Bench. General Gage was sent to Boston to enforce these measures; but the troops at his disposal were not adequate to support such vigorous proceedings. The colonies agreed to abstain from using British merchandise till Massachusetts should be restored to its privileges; while a general congress, which met at Philadelphia (December, 1774), resolved to repel force by force. They drew up addresses to the people of Great Britain, as well as to the colonies; and also a petition to the king, in which they professed their loyalty. But, in spite of Lord Chatham's eloquent warnings, the English Government persisted in its course.

THE APPEAL TO ARMS.

First Hostilities.—In February, 1775, bills were brought in to restrain the commerce of the New England provinces, and to exclude them from the Newfoundland fisheries. These measures were shortly followed by a collision between the colonial militia and the royal troops, which inaugurated the war which led to independence. General Gage, having dispersed some militia at Lexington (April 19, 1775), the farmers assembled on all sides, attacked the king's troops at Concord Bridge, and drove them back to the suburbs of Boston.

The congress now appointed George Washington commander-in-chief, and on July 6, 1775, they published a *declaration* explaining their motives, but denying any intention to separate from the mother country. Washington, with 20,000 raw recruits, now blockaded Boston. They marched to Charlestown, where they threw up fortifications on Bunker Hill, which commands Boston, and though on June 17th they were driven from it, it was only after a desperate struggle, in which their bravery put an end forever to the taunts of cowardice which had been levelled against them. The blockade of Boston, however, still continued, and in March, 1776, Howe was compelled to abandon the town and to retire to Halifax, in Nova Scotia. The Americans, elated with their success, made now an attempt upon Canada (November, 1775), and though this attempt broke down before Quebec, it showed that all hope of reconciliation was over.

Declaration of Independence.—The English Government felt the necessity for making more vigorous efforts, and, early in 1776, treaties had been concluded with some German princes (Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, etc.), by which they engaged to supply between 17,000 and 18,000 men to serve against the Americans. This afforded the colonists a motive for altogether renouncing their connection with the mother country. On July 4, 1776, Congress, under the presidency of John Hancock, made its *Declaration of Independence*, after a fierce resistance from the delegates of Pennsylvania and South Carolina, and in spite of the abstention of those of New York.

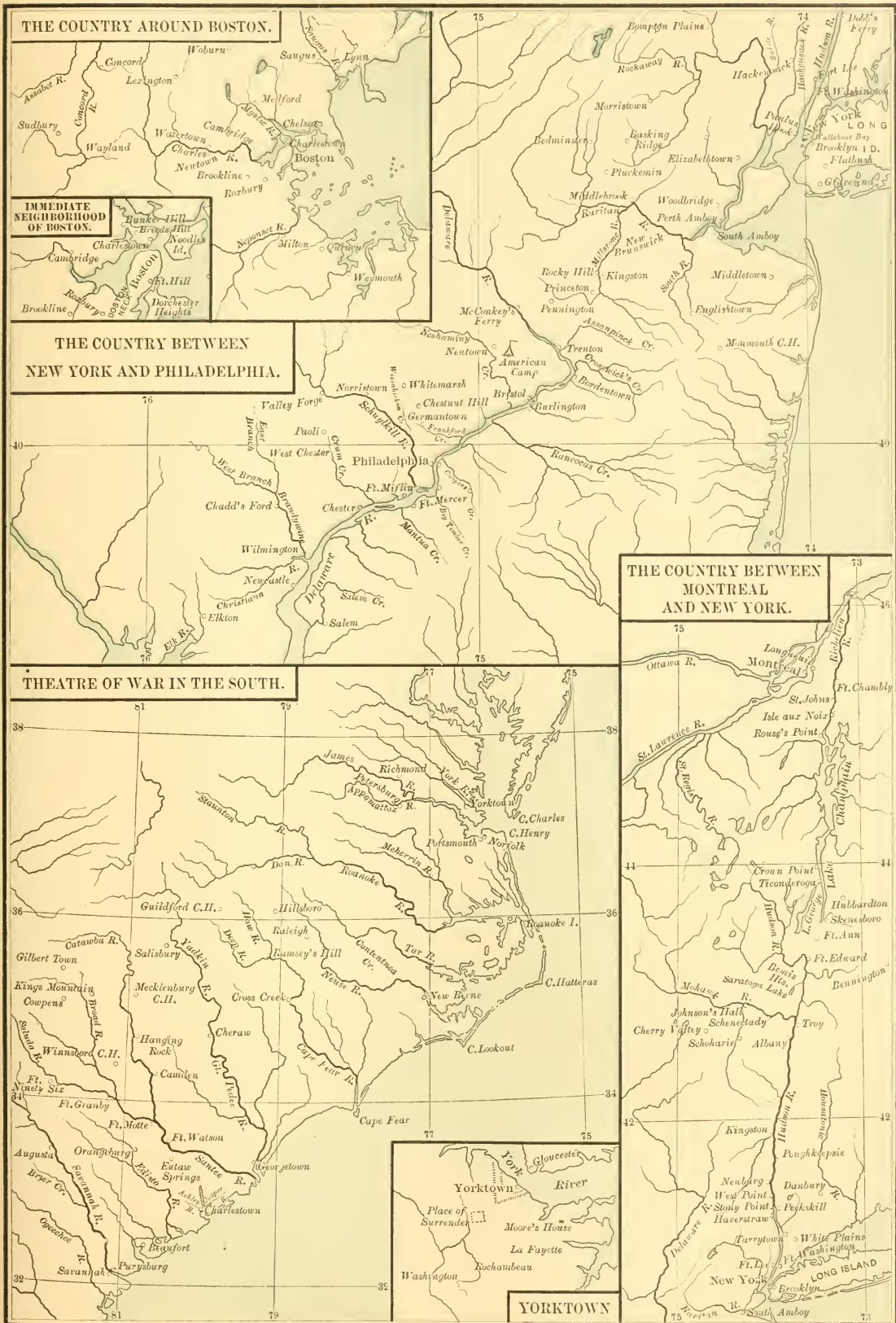
"We," ran its solemn words, "*the representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States.*"

French Alliance.—The Declaration of Independence encouraged France to afford more active assistance to the nascent republic. Although Louis XVI. was averse to a war with England, his Queen, Marie Antoinette, was ardent in the cause of American liberty. Her feeling was shared by Vergennes, the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and their counsels prevailed. It was not, however, till 1778, that France formally recognized American independence. The campaign of 1777 had first gone in favor of the English. Howe had defeated Washington at the Brandywine (September 11th); had subsequently taken Philadelphia (26th), and again repulsed Washington at Germantown (October 24th). But these successes were more than counterbalanced by the surrender of Burgoyne, at Saratoga, to Gates (October 16th).

The news of Saratoga now induced France (February 6, 1778), to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with the United States. Long before this, however, many distinguished Frenchmen had offered their swords to America, and had been bravely fighting for its independence; among them may be named Lafayette, Rochambeau, De Noailles, etc.

Surrender of Cornwallis.—After Burgoyne's surrender, the English generals had withdrawn from Pennsylvania, and bent all their efforts on the Southern States, where a strong royalist party still existed.

But the capture of Charleston and Savannah, and the successes of Lord Cornwallis in 1780, were rendered fruitless by the obstinate resistance of Nathaniel Greene, who, with a small, ill-clad, and ill-furnished army, pushed the British from post to post. He forced



FORMATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

them out of Georgia and the Carolinas, except that they still held Savannah and Charleston. Finally he drove them to the peninsula formed by the York and James Rivers, in Virginia, where Cornwallis entrenched himself in the lines of Yorktown. A sudden march of Washington brought him to the front of the English troops at a moment that the French fleet, under Count de Grasse, held the entrance to the bay. Cornwallis, caught in a trap, was forced, October 19, 1781, to a surrender as humiliating as that of Saratoga. This surrender was accepted on both sides as the end of the war.

It was nearly two years, however, before the treaty of peace was finally signed (September 3, 1783), in which England reserved to herself on the American continent only Canada, Nova Scotia, and the island of Newfoundland; and acknowledged without reserve the INDEPENDENCE OF THE UNITED STATES.

The New Nation.—The territory of the new republic reached from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the great lakes it spread to the southern border of Georgia. This vast tract was parcelled out among the thirteen

original States, of which seven had well-defined boundaries; of the remaining six, some laid claim to lands since given to other States, while a few would content themselves with no limit short of the Mississippi. Its population may have been about three and a quarter millions, who inhabited a narrow line of towns and hamlets, extending, with many breaks, along the coast from Maine to Georgia. But fifty miles back from the Atlantic coast the country was an unbroken jungle.

When, seven years after the peace, the first census was taken (1790), there was found to be a population of nearly 4,000,000, who occupied a belt of country between the Alleghanies and the sea. The second census (1800) showed over five and a quarter millions, who had spread far beyond the Alleghanies. In 1803, when the Union was composed of seventeen States, while the population was pressing over the plains to the Mississippi, the territory of the republic was suddenly more than doubled by the purchase of Louisiana from Emperor Napoleon I. for \$15,000,000.

THE FORMATION OF THE GOVERNMENT.

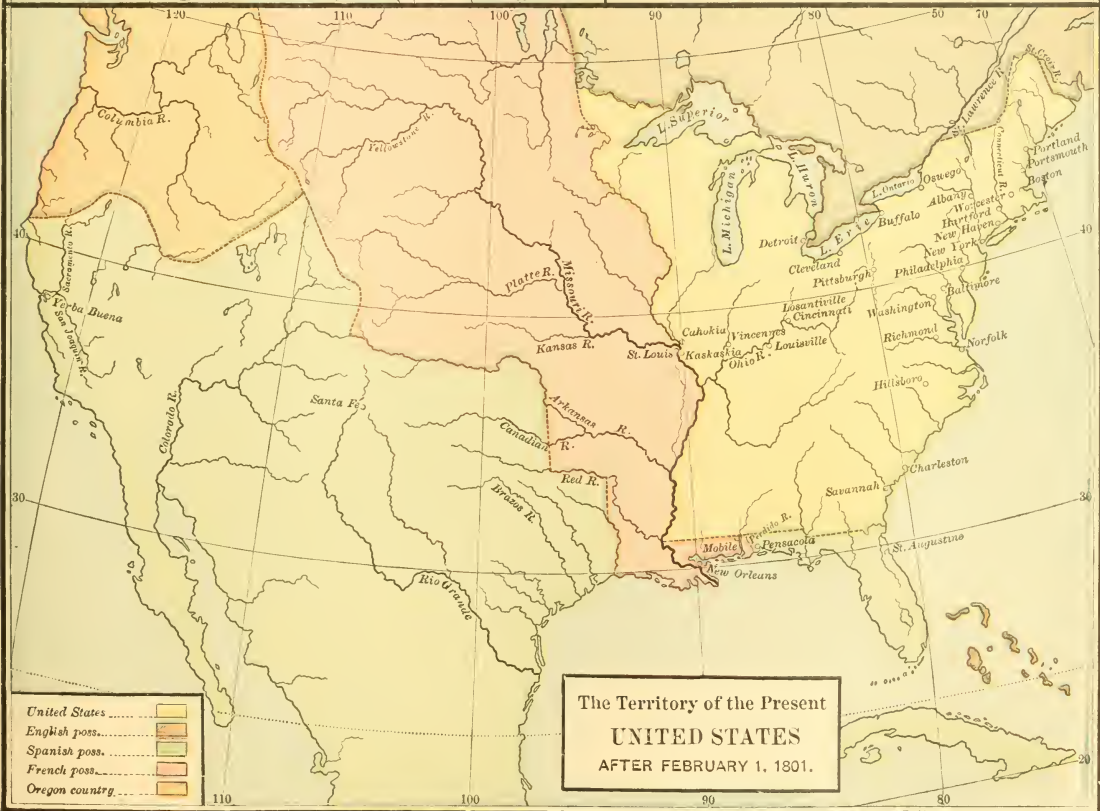
FORMATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

Articles of Confederation.—The Continental Congress had managed the affairs of the Union throughout the war. It only existed by the courtesy of the States, which had sent delegates to it. It was sincerely hoped that they would continue to do so, since Congress was the only means to unite the States. But its powers needed sadly to be strengthened, since the delegates strictly obeyed their State governments, which made the Continental Congress nearly powerless. To remedy this evil ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION were agreed upon (1777) to prevent any further interferences by the State governments. According to that instrument, the union was to be a *league of friendship*—a confederation—between SOVEREIGN States. A congress in which the States should have equal voice was to manage their general interests. To this congress were delegated most of the rights of sovereignty. But no means were given it by which it could execute its powers. It could only advise the States, and send them its suggestions, and they, if they chose, could ignore them. For

this reason the *Articles of Confederation* were found to be worthless as soon as they were put into effect (in 1781).

The Constitutional Convention.—All agreed that some new way of forming a government must be tried. Virginia spoke earnestly through its legislature, and a convention was called "to take into consideration the situation of the United States." This convention, which met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia (May 14, 1787), drew up a *Constitution of the United States* which was to take the place of the Articles of Confederation.

They sent the completed Constitution to Congress, with a letter signed by Washington, recommending that conventions be called in each State with the sole object of acting upon the Constitution, in order that its ratification might be the direct work of the people, instead of that of State governments. The approval by the conventions of nine States should be necessary before the Constitution could become the law of the land. The advice of the convention was taken, and the States, one after another, called conventions to ratify or to reject it. The ratification of the ninth



OPERATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

State (New Hampshire), which assured the adoption of the constitution, took place in June, 1788.

The Constitution.—This Constitution changed the confederation to a *Union* with a general government, which should have power *to act*, and not to simply advise the States.

Like the separate States, it was to have three great departments of government.

A. A legislative department (Congress) to make the laws.

B. An executive department (President) to execute the laws.

C. A judiciary department (Federal courts) to decide disputed questions under the laws.

Congress was divided into two branches—the Senate and the House of Representatives. Senators were to serve for six years, and each State, large or small, was to choose two representatives, who were to serve for two years, and were to be chosen by the States according to population. The powers granted by the States to Congress were: To lay taxes, borrow and coin money, regulate commerce, establish post-offices, declare war, raise and support an army and navy, etc.

OPERATION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

The New Government.—As soon as the ninth State had ratified the Constitution, Congress appointed March 4, 1789, as the day on which it should become the organic law of the land.

The first step to be taken under the New Constitution was to elect a President. The first Wednesday in January, 1789, was appointed for his election. Only one man was held in universal esteem, and it was generally felt that *he* must be the first executive. The first electoral college was chosen with this expectation.* It gave every vote to GEORGE WASHINGTON, while eleven candidates received votes for Vice-President. John Adams was chosen Vice-President. Congress was summoned to meet in New York on March 4th; but the members had to travel far on foot or on horseback. Roads were bad, bridges were few. It was not before April 30th that Washington was sworn into office by the chief judge of the State of New York.

* The President and Vice-President of the United States are not elected directly by the people. Each State chooses as many electors as it has Senators and Representatives together, and whichever party gains a majority of these electors secures the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. Originally, each elector merely named two persons, and the highest two names on the list of those voted for became President and Vice-President. Since 1804 each elector votes for one name for President, and one for Vice-President.

Then at length Congress could commence business. There was difficult work to do, and it was done patiently, with much plain sense and honesty.

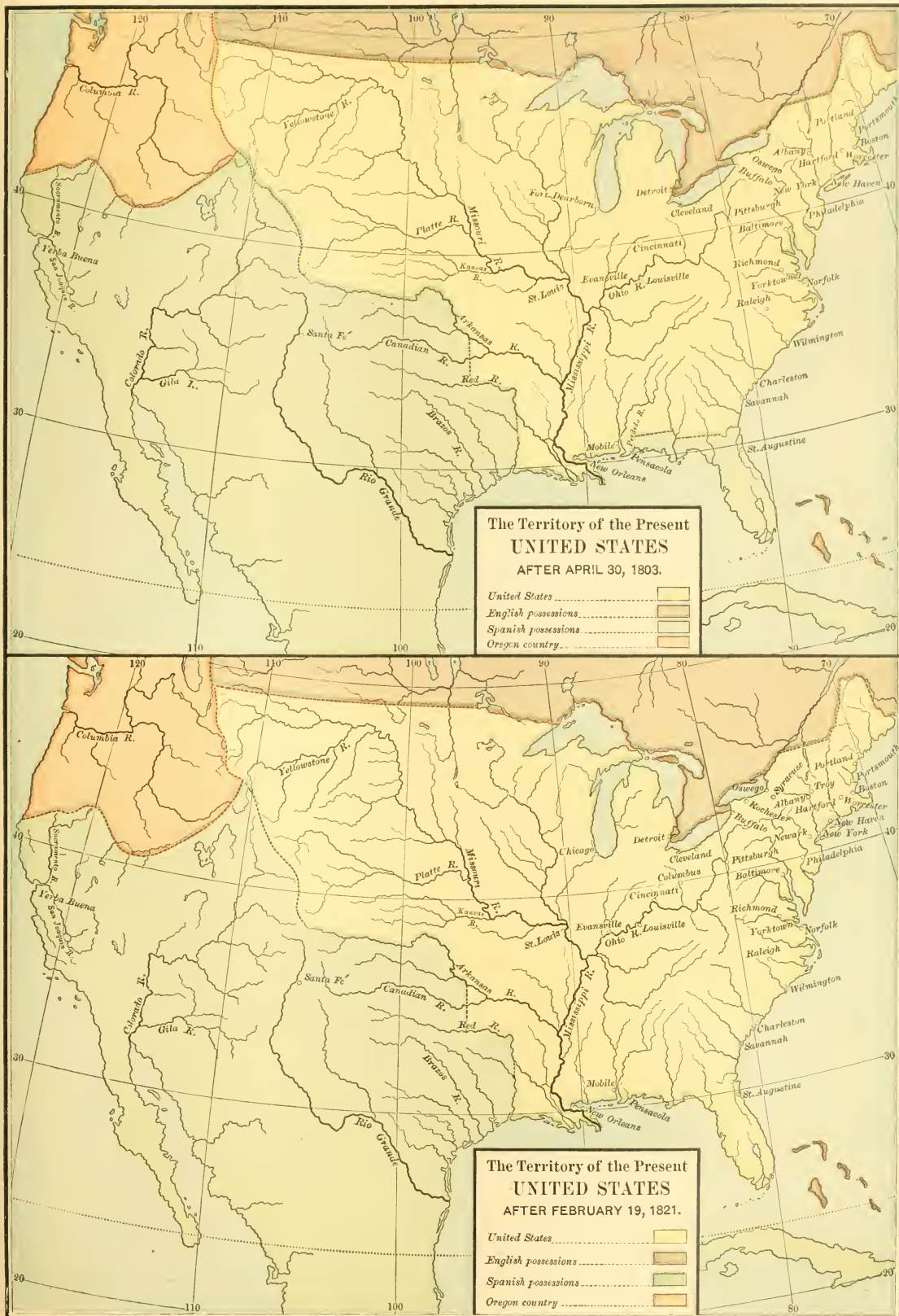
From the very beginning there were two parties: Federalists and Anti-Federalists. The Federalists wanted to employ all the powers granted in the Constitution, and to establish thoroughly the sovereignty and nationality of the union. The Anti-Federalists wanted to use as few of these powers as possible, and give the States every opportunity possible to increase their influence. Washington, knowing that he held the confidence of both, tried to unite both parties on a middle ground. He chose for his Cabinet Hamilton and Knox as representative Federalists, and Jefferson and Randolph as representative Anti-Federalists. Hamilton was the head of the Treasury, Knox of the Department of War, and Jefferson of the Department of Foreign Affairs. These *heads of Departments* were called Secretaries, and with the Attorney-General, Randolph, formed the President's Cabinet.*

To please the Anti-Federalists, twelve amendments to the Constitution were adopted to guard the freedom of the people against the encroachments of the General Government. They pleased the Anti-Federalists, but did, luckily, not affect the character or working of the Constitution. Ten of these were ratified by the States.

Regulation of the Finances.—As yet there was no revenue, while everywhere there was debt. Washington asked a friend, "What is to be done about this heavy debt?" "There is but one man in America can tell you," he was answered, "and that man is Alexander Hamilton."

Washington put him at the head of the Treasury. The success of his financial measures was immediate and complete. "He smote the rock of the national resources," said Daniel Webster, "and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth. He touched the dead corpse of the public credit, and it sprang upon its feet." He presented to Congress a plan for the payment of *all* debts incurred during the war. These debts were of three kinds: The foreign debt of the Confederacy, the domestic debt of the Confederacy, and the revolutionary debt of the States. Notwithstanding great opposition his plan was finally adopted. The consequences of this assumption of the State debts by the United States

* The Navy Department was added in 1798; it had previously been a part of the War Department. The Post-office Department was added in 1829; it had previously been a part of the Treasury Department. In 1849 the Department of the Interior was organized.



were greatly increased power and influence of the General Government and correspondingly decreased power of the States, especially after efficient provision was made for the regular payment of interest, and for a sinking fund to liquidate the principal. Duties were imposed on shipping, on goods imported from abroad, and on spirits manufactured at home. The vigor of the Government inspired public confidence, and commerce began to revive. In a few years the American flag was seen on every sea.

The crowning effort of Hamilton's financial policy was the establishment of a national bank in 1791.

THE THIRTY YEARS' PEACE.

Supremacy of the Federalist Party.—

The War of Independence was succeeded by thirty years of peace, during which there were indeed some trivial agitations (Indian wars, war with Tripoli, etc.), but they did not in reality disturb the profound tranquillity of the nation, or hinder its progress in that career of prosperity on which it had now entered. Innumerable details connected with the establishment of a new government were discussed and fixed. The national capital, from 1790–1800 in Philadelphia, was, in the latter year, transplanted to the banks of the Potomac, remote from the agitations which arise in the great centres of population. Succeeding generations have approved the wisdom of their early legislators, and continue almost unaltered the arrangements which were framed at the outset of the national existence.

Washington was President during the first eight years of the national life, refusing to be a candidate for a third term of office. In 1796 he issued his "Farewell Address" to the American people. In that address, which is weighty with wisdom, he urged them to make religion, education, and public good faith the foundations of their government, to remain united, and resist foreign influence. "Extend your business relations with Europe," he said, "but do not be dragged into her politics. Do not suffer yourselves to have passionate attachments for other nations. Be strong in yourselves, and you will be independent of the Old World."

When it was known that Washington would not accept re-election, the Federalists looked to John Adams as his successor, and Jefferson was the undisputed choice of the Anti-Federalists (or Republicans). Adams, receiving the greatest number of votes, became President, and Jefferson, receiving the next highest, became Vice-President.

Adams began his administration with a determination to follow Washington's neutral policy. But at the very beginning of his administration there was a severe misunderstanding with the French Directory, which was carried to a somewhat perilous extreme. A desperate fight took place between the French frigate *L'Insurgente* and the American frigate the *Constellation*, resulting in the surrender of the former. Our national song, "Hail, Columbia!" was born during this excitement. War, however, was averted by the overthrow of the Directory in France by Bonaparte, who hastened to make peace with the United States (September, 1800). During this administration the Federalists proposed and carried three vigorous measures, intended to secure and promote good order :

I. AN ALIEN LAW, which vested in the President power to order from the country any alien, whom he might judge dangerous to public peace, or to cause his imprisonment if he failed to obey.

II. A SEDITION LAW, which imposed a severe punishment on any who should seek to injure the Government by false or scandalous reports, or should conspire to oppose it.

III. REVISION OF THE NATURALIZATION LAWS, making it more difficult for foreigners to become citizens.

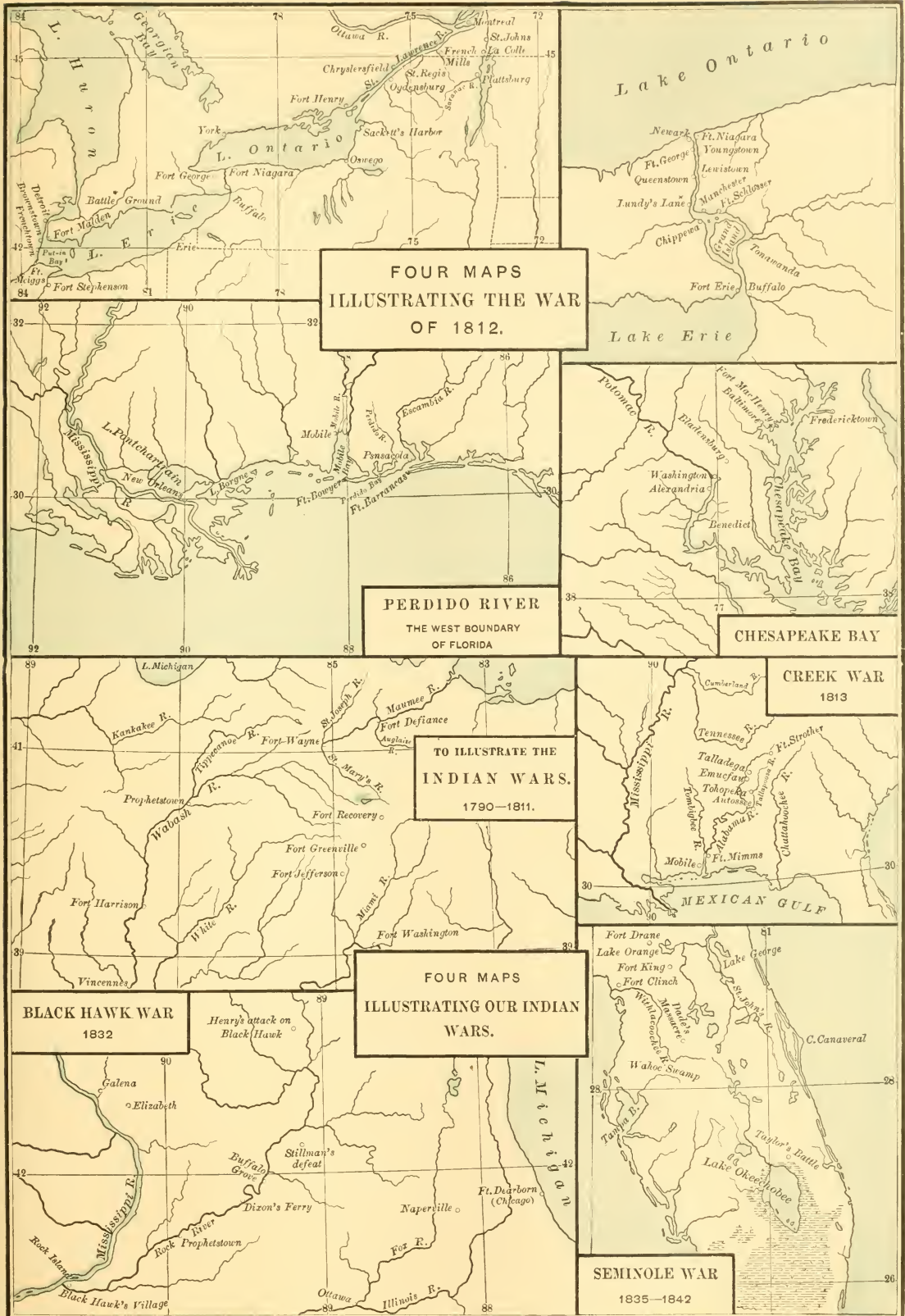
The unpopularity of these acts prevented the re-election of Adams. The Anti-Federalist (or Republican) nominees, Jefferson and Burr, received the majority of votes ; but, as each had the same number, the election went to the House of Representatives, which chose Jefferson for President and Burr for Vice-President.

This election made an end to the supremacy of the Federalist party. It had lasted twelve years, during which it had put in successful operation the Constitution which it had framed and adopted. It had established a new government, made a credit for the country, revived industry and commerce, and brought back prosperity. It had accomplished a gigantic task.

Supremacy of the Republican Party.—

The Anti-Federalist or Republican party came into power in 1801, with the inauguration of Thomas Jefferson. No man could ask for brighter prospects than those which greeted him on his entrance into office. The Government was firmly established, and loyal feeling toward the Constitution was increasing.

Jefferson's eight years of office saw great changes. In his first term the prosperity, due to the Federal measures of the preceding years, bore full fruit, and he reaped the har-



vest. His great deed was the Louisiana purchase.* In his second term he injudiciously rejected the English treaty and suggested the Embargo Act, which greatly weakened the country, and threatened to divide New England from it. Public feeling had continually

strengthened in Jefferson's favor in his first term; in his second term it made no advance, but rather fell back, because his course was so far from wise. His successor, James Madison, found himself at the head of the nation in very troublous times.

FIRST TRIALS OF THE GREAT REPUBLIC.

THE ENGLISH WAR OF 1812.

Cause.—In the beginning of the nineteenth century, while the flames of war consumed the nations of the Old World, the mercantile fleet of the United States enjoyed a monopoly. The young Republic traded impartially with all the combatants. While the energies of Europe were taxed to the uttermost by a gigantic work of mutual destruction, the American merchants made great gain of their madness. But during the struggle between France and England, the decrees of a mutual blockade of their ports, issued by both belligerents, closed Europe against American vessels. Many captures were made, especially by English cruisers. Besides, English men-of-war claimed the right to search American vessels for men who had deserted; and also for men who, as born English subjects, were liable to be impressed. America unwisely retaliated by closing her ports against the European powers who had so offended. Thus, for four years commerce was suspended, and grass grew on the idle wharves of New York and Philadelphia. Tens of thousands of working people were thrown idle. The irritation of the impoverished nation was fast ripening toward war. On June 18, 1812, Congress passed a bill which declared war against Great Britain. It was by no means a unanimous movement. New England bitterly opposed it. The chief support came from the South and West, which, having no towns to

be bombarded, preferred to try their strength with England in battle.

Campaigns of 1812.—The declaration of war seemed an act of sheer madness. For England possessed 1,000 men-of-war, and the United States hardly twenty. England had 1,000,000 of well-drilled veterans—the army of the United States, hardly numbering twenty-five thousand, was a mass of half-drilled and half-armed recruits. Three attempts to penetrate into Canada during the summer and fall were repulsed with heavy loss. But these failures were more than redeemed by unexpected successes at sea, where in successive engagements five British men-of-war were taken in battle by the Americans and forced to strike their flag. The effect of these victories was immense, for they were *the first heavy blows which had been dealt at England's supremacy over the seas.*

Campaigns of 1813.—In 1813, these naval triumphs on the ocean were followed up by even more vigorous efforts on the inland seas. Under Perry's direction a fleet was built on Lake Erie which utterly destroyed the British flotilla; Toronto was captured, and Upper Canada occupied. An attack on Lower Canada, however, failed, and a fresh advance of the British and Canadian forces recovered the Upper Province.

This reverse gave fresh strength to the peace party. Cries of secession began to be heard, and Massachusetts took the bold step of appointing delegates from the other New England States "on the subject of their grievances and common concerns."

Campaigns of 1814.—In 1814, however, the war was renewed with more vigor than ever. Upper Canada was again invaded. But the American army, after inflicting two severe defeats on the British forces at Chippewa, July 5th, and at Lundy's Lane, July 25th, was forced, for want of ammunition, to retreat to the defences of Fort Erie. A month later, August 24th, General Ross appeared on the Potomac, captured the defenceless town of Washington, and, before evacuating it, burned its public buildings to the ground.

* In 1800, the Spanish governor of Louisiana refused to admit United States vessels into the Port of New Orleans; but the threatened cloud passed over. Louisiana having been ceded to France, Napoleon Bonaparte, in 1803, sold it to the American Government for \$15,000,000. Of this sale, Napoleon is said to have remarked: "*This accession of territory strengthens forever the power of the United States, and I have just given to England a maritime rival, which will sooner or later humble her pride.*"

By this Louisiana Purchase the United States acquired: all of its present area between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains, north of the then northern boundary of Mexico, the island on which New Orleans stands, and a claim to Texas and West Florida (West Florida was that portion of the present States of Alabama and Mississippi which was south of the 31° north latitude). It more than doubled the area of the republic.

THE MEXICAN WAR.

Successful as the valiant British were in burning a defenceless town, they failed signally in their attempts to penetrate into the Republic from the North and from the South.

The British army, which marched in September to the attack of Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, was forced to fall back by the defeat of the English flotilla which accompanied it. A second force, under General Packenham, appeared in December at the mouth of the Mississippi, and attacked New Orleans, but was repulsed (January 8, 1815) by General Jackson, with the loss of half its number. Peace, however, had already been concluded (December 24, 1814, at Ghent).

FLORIDA.

The Cession.—By this war, the independence of the United States was securely fixed. England withdrew her last claim to sovereignty. The Republic was henceforth to be one of the great powers of the world. It still, however, was cut off from the Gulf of Mexico by the Spanish dependency of the Floridas. Finally, in 1819, Spain gave up all claim to West Florida, which had been occupied by the United States since 1810, and ceded East Florida. The United States gave up all claim to Texas, and agreed to pay an indemnity of five millions to its own citizens for claims which they had against Spain.*

The Indians.—On March 3, 1822, Congress passed an act establishing the Territory of Florida, and the machinery of free representative government was soon in regular working order, and immigration began to move in. The settling of the country would have proceeded much more rapidly but for the difficulties presented by the Indians, who were in possession of the best lands, and extremely jealous of their rights. It was the desire of the whites that all red men should be removed to some reservation west of the Mississippi. But the majority of the Indians were bitterly opposed to such a change, and when the authorities determined to remove them by force, they stoutly resisted. Hereupon began the longest, bloodiest, and costliest war that was ever waged between whites and Indians in America.

The Seminole War.—The *Seminole War* began with the appalling massacre of Major Dade's command on December 23, 1835, and raged unceasingly until August, 1842. But, though triumphant in the end, the United

States had paid dearly for the victory, and the growth of Florida had been set back fully a generation. Plantations that dated from the earliest settlement of the country had been broken up, agricultural occupations had been almost completely suspended, and immigrants were deterred from venturing where the conditions of life were so precarious. But, after the war was ended, immigration began afresh, and in 1845 Florida was admitted to the Union.

THE MEXICAN WAR.

Texas.—The United States now controlled the entire seaboard from the St. Croix River in the northeast to the Sabine River in the southwest. When Louisiana was purchased from France (1803), there was a dispute with Spain whether its boundary was the Sabine River or the Rio Grande. Although it had been settled, at the cession of Florida, that the boundary between Louisiana and Mexico should be the Sabine River, the Washington Government continued to have an eye on the Rio Grande as border line.

Both John Quincy Adams and Jackson, during their presidential terms, tried to buy Texas (the country between the Sabine and Rio Grande) of Mexico, who refused to sell. But in 1836 Texas declared itself independent of Mexico, and, as soon as its independence was recognized, it sought admission into the Union. The then President, Van Buren (1837–1841) fearing war with Mexico, denied the request. The question came up again in 1844, and upon this the election of the next President was based. The Democrats (the Anti-Federalists or Republicans of former days) favored, the Whigs (the Federalists) opposed annexation. The Democrats carried the day. Their candidate, James K. Polk, was elected, and Texas was admitted to the Union. The annexation was hardly confirmed when Texas, in anticipation of trouble with Mexico, asked for protection, as a dispute had already arisen concerning the western boundary, Texas claiming the Rio Grande and Mexico the Nueces River.

Mexican War.—When the Mexicans refused to settle the matter by treaty General Zachary Taylor called for volunteers from Louisiana and Texas, and moved his army from the Nueces River to the Rio Grande. A Mexican force in the neighborhood attempted to intercept him. A severe engagement took place (May 8, 1846) at Palo Alto, in which the Mexicans, though vastly superior in numbers, were defeated. The next day they made a far more desperate fight, but again were beaten, and fled across the river. Four days

* This happened during the presidency of Monroe, whose administration had followed Madison's in 1817. Monroe occupied the presidency until 1825. For a full list of the Presidents of the United States, see note at the end of the History of the United States.

After the United States declared war against Mexico, and called for 50,000 volunteers. The troops were organized into three divisions; one under Taylor to hold the disputed territory; one under Scott to march to the City of Mexico; and one under Kearney to enter Mexico from the north. Taylor captured Matamoros and Monterey, and (February, 1847) gained a brilliant victory at Buena Vista. Kearney entered Santa Fé, and then passed on to California, where John C. Frémont had rallied the people to throw off the Mexican yoke. Scott landed in March, 1847, at Vera Cruz, which, after a fierce bombardment of four days, was taken (March 29, 1847). A week afterward the army took up its march for the capital. The strongly fortified passes (*Cerro Gordo*, etc.) all surrendered. On August 10th Scott, with about 10,000 men, reached the crest of the Cordilleras, where the magnificent Valley of Mexico lay stretched before them. In the midst was the city, surrounded by fertile plains and cloud-capped mountains. But the way thither was guarded by 30,000 men and strong fortifications. Scott, how-

ever, overcame all difficulties, and on the night of September 13th the City of Mexico was evacuated by the Government, and the American flag was raised next day in the capital.

The Mexican Cessions.—The war was ended by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848). In this treaty Mexico agreed that the Rio Grande should be the boundary between the two republics, and, in consideration of \$15,000,000, ceded to the United States the provinces of New Mexico and Upper California. Five years later, the boundary between the United States and Mexico was definitely settled by the Gadsden purchase. The area acquired by these two cessions was nearly five hundred and sixty-eight thousand square miles, for which the United States paid in all \$25,000,000.

Shortly after the cession of California great excitement was caused by the discovery of gold on the Sacramento River. People flocked thither from the East, and from all parts of the Old World, and the population grew with great rapidity.

THE GREAT TRIAL—THE CIVIL WAR.

THE CAUSES OF THE CIVIL WAR.

Cotton.—When Europeans first visited the southern part of the present United States they found, in abundant growth there, an unimportant-looking plant, two or three feet in height, studded with pods, which, opening in the ball, revealed a wealth of soft, white fibre, to which the seeds of the plant were tenaciously adhering. This was cotton. The English began very soon to cultivate it, although it was a difficult crop for them to handle; for, before the fibre could be used, the seeds had to be removed, and it was as much as a man could do in a day to separate one pound of cotton from the seeds. Cotton could never be abundant or cheap while this was the case.

The Cotton-gin.—But after *Richard Arkwright* had (1768) invented his spinning-machine, and *James Watt* (1769) his steam-engine, England was ready to begin to weave cotton for the world, if only it could get the cotton. This problem was solved, in 1792, by *Eli Whitney's* cotton-gin, a simple machine which could perform the work of hundreds of men. Whitney's invention made the growth of cotton profitable; and, as a consequence, slave-holding became lucrative, for slaves

proved to be the cheapest hands in the cotton-fields.

King Cotton.—Henceforth cotton was king, and slavery was its life-guard. The North participated in the gains of slavery. The cotton-planter borrowed money at high interest from the Northern capitalist. He bought his goods in Northern markets; he sent his cotton to the North for sale. The Northern merchants made money at his hands, and were in no haste to overthrow the Southern institutions, out of which results so pleasant flowed; besides, they were convinced that the condition of the slaves was far preferable to that of the free European laborer.

The Abolitionists.—But among another part of the population of the North hatred to slavery was slowly growing. In the eyes of some of them, slavery was an enormous sin, fitted to bring the curse of God upon the land. To others it was a political evil, marring the unity and hindering the progress of the country. In 1832 the American Anti-slavery Society was formed, composed of *twelve* members. But within three years there were two hundred anti-slavery societies in America; in seven years more they had increased to two thousand. The war against slavery was now begun in earnest.



The Missouri Compromise.—One man, towering far above all pro-slavery and anti-slavery leaders, sought to calm the strife, which he foresaw would lead to a disruption of the Union and to civil war; this was *Henry Clay*, of Kentucky.

For many years of the prolonged struggle, he seemed to stand between North and South, wielding authority over both. His aim was to deliver his dearly beloved country from the taint of slavery; but he would effect that great revolution step by step, as the country could bear it. True statesman as he was, at every crisis he was ready with a compromise—the only object of all true statesmanship. His proposals soothed the angry passions which were aroused when Missouri sought admission into the Union. By the Missouri compromise (1820) slavery was to be permitted in Missouri, but was to be prohibited forever in all other territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$, the southern boundary of Missouri. But thirty years later it was repealed, and to the territories north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ the right was given to decide by vote, whether they were to be slave or free States.

Kansas and Nebraska.—In 1852 a contest arose in Congress over the organization into Territories of the country lying west of Missouri and Iowa. Senator Douglas introduced a bill for organizing the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska, giving them, according to the compromise of 1850, the right to decide whether they were to have slavery or not. The bill was passed in 1854, after a sharp debate, which proved that the conflict was irrepressible. After much wrangling, and even fighting, they declared against slavery.

Secession of South Carolina.—In 1860 the Republican, or anti-slavery party, elected Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency. The South had declared beforehand, that if the Republican party were successful, the slaveholding States would leave the Union. South Carolina now took the lead in fulfilling the promise of secession. The Senators from the State, and all office-holders in South Carolina under the Federal Government, resigned. The Legislature called a State convention, which on December 20th unanimously passed an ordinance of secession. It bore the title, "*An ordinance to dissolve the union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her in the compact entitled the Constitution of the United States.*"

The Confederacy.—The example of South Carolina was at once followed by Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida. They formed (February 7, 1861) a government under the name of the *Confederate States of America*, thereby declaring that the States

formed a *Confederacy* and not a *Union*. They adopted a constitution, differing from the old mainly in these respects, that it contained provisions against a protective tariff; and gave effective securities for the permanence and extension of slavery. Jefferson Davis was elected President for six years. After the government was formed the Confederacy was joined by those other slave States which, at first, had hesitated—Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Texas. The Confederacy in its completed form was composed of eleven States, with a population of nine millions, one-third of which were slaves. Twenty-three States remained in the Union, their population amounting to twenty-two millions. War was now inevitable, but both parties believed that after a short struggle they would come out victorious.

THE WAR.

The Task.—The South, despising an adversary unpractised in war, and vainly trusting that the European powers would interfere, expected that a few victories would bring peace and independence. The North still regarded secession as little more than a gigantic riot, which she proposed to extinguish within ninety days. The truth was strangely different from the prevailing belief of the day. A high-spirited people, six millions in number, occupying a fertile territory nearly a million square miles in extent, had risen against the Government. The task undertaken by the North was to conquer this people, and by force of arms to bring them and their territory back to the Union.

The Theatre of War.—The Confederacy presented three distinctly marked regions, separated from each other by the Mississippi and the Alleghany Mountains.

1. The *right region*, or the territory west of the Mississippi, intrinsically of little military value.

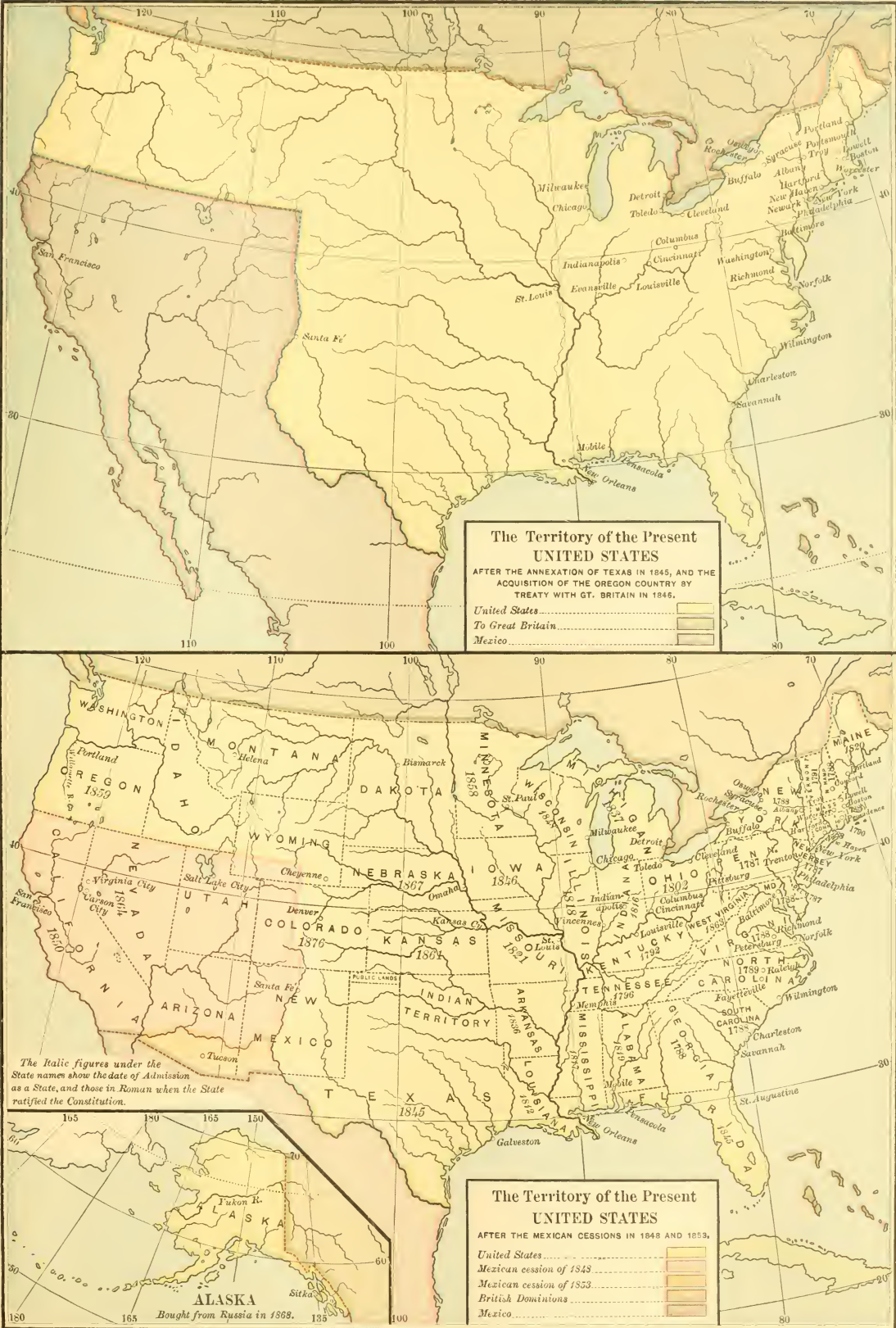
2. The *left region*, or the territory east of the Alleghany Mountains, a constant menace to Washington, and of great political importance.

3. The *central region*, or the territory between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies, the strategical heart of the Confederacy.

Their only complete east and west bond was the railroad from Memphis, on the Mississippi, to Charleston, on the Atlantic. The great strategical position on this line was Chattanooga, where the road bifurcates in a northern branch to Richmond, and a southeastern branch to Savannah and Charleston.

The cutting of this railroad would be the severing of the Confederacy.

For its protection there was established, one



hundred and fifty miles to the north, parallel to it, a military line extending from Columbus, on the Mississippi, through Forts Henry and Donelson, to Bowling Green. A navigable river, the Tennessee, flows perpendicularly through this northern line, and runs parallel with the Memphis-Charleston Railroad. The task of the North was, to burst through the *Columbus-Bowling Green line*, break the *Memphis-Charleston Railroad* and secure possession of the strategic point of Chattanooga. This being accomplished, the opening of the Mississippi would follow, as a matter of course. The great result, however, would be the division of the Confederacy, the preliminary of its fall. For this would place the Confederate forces in Virginia between two Union armies, one threatening it from the north of Richmond, the other through the portal of Chattanooga. In the east, the proper aim of the Union armies should have been the destruction of the Confederate forces, not the taking of Richmond, which the Confederacy could afford to lose without being materially weakened thereby.

Bull Run.—But the North hoped to bring the war to a speedy close by the capture of Richmond. Their first forward movement, however, terminated in their utter defeat at Bull Run (July 21st). The great result of this defeat was that it taught the North the real nature of the terrific struggle in which it was engaged. On the day after the battle, Congress voted \$500,000,000 and called for half a million of volunteers.

Forcing of the Columbus-Bowling Green Line.—George B. McClellan was appointed commander-in-chief under the President (October 31, 1861). He employed the fall and winter of 1861 in organizing an army of 200,000 men. Tired of his inactivity, the President issued an order that on February 22, 1862, a general movement of the land and naval forces should take place. With this order, which was suggested by Stanton, the new Secretary of War, the war may be said to have begun systematically. To Grant was assigned the forcing of the *Columbus-Bowling Green line*. Proceeding up the Tennessee River, he took *Fort Henry* (February 6th). Then marching across the country, he took *Fort Donelson*, on the Cumberland River (February 16th), and the first Confederate line was pierced. This victory gave the North absolute control of Kentucky, and of a large part of Tennessee. The attempt to recover them was given up after the Confederate defeat at Murfreesborough (December 31, 1862), which battle convinced them that they could not break through the line of investment between the Cumberland

Mountains and the Free States, and that the struggle was destined to be a long and fierce one.

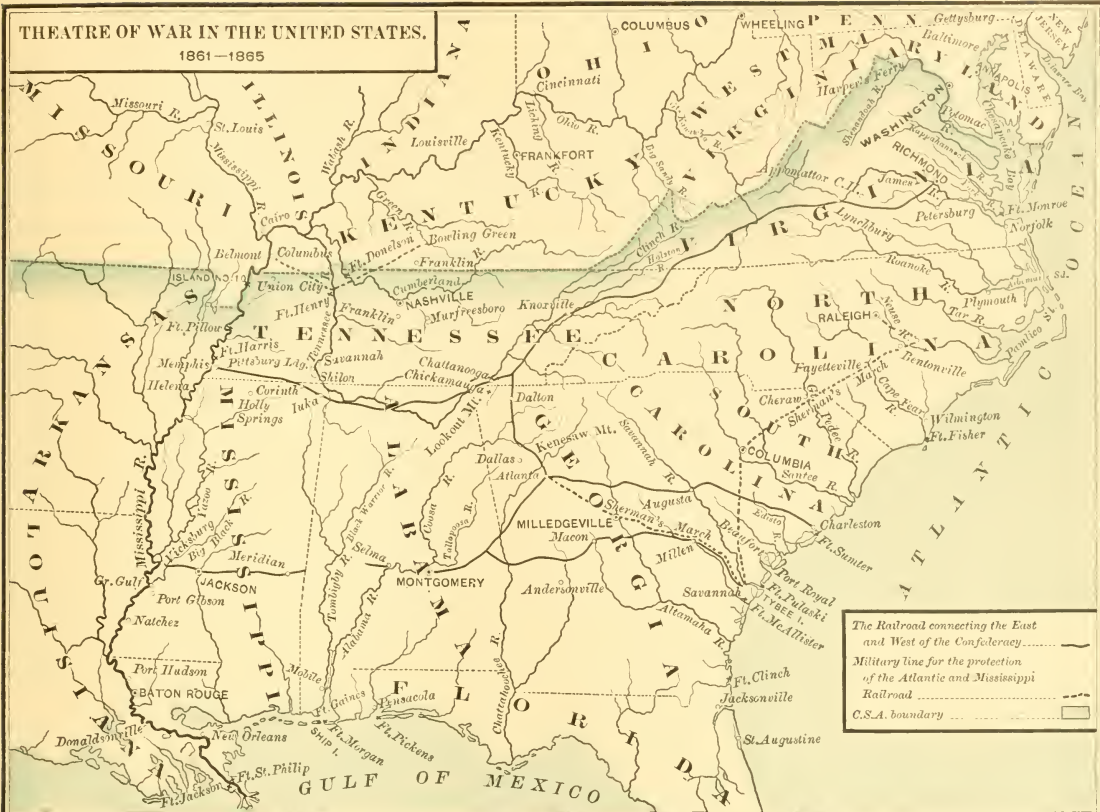
The Blockade.—The financial strength of the Confederacy, which was the measure of her war-strength, turned on the possibility of converting her cotton into gold. To prevent this, the Southern ports had to be blockaded or taken. Such effective measures were taken that at the end of 1862 every city of the seacoast, except Savannah, Charleston, and Mobile, was held by the North. But the various attempts to take Richmond, by McClellan, Pope, and Burnside, proved total failures. On September 22, 1862, Lincoln issued his emancipation-proclamation, in which it was declared, "that on the first day of January, 1863, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward and forever, free."

Gettysburg.—The third year of the war (1863) opened very disastrously for the North, both in the East and in the West. Galveston was retaken by the Confederates; Burnside's march upon Lee was stopped by storms; Dupont's naval attack on Charleston failed; the Confederate cruisers destroyed the commerce of the North; Banks was unable to take Port Hudson; Grant had not yet accomplished the capture of Vicksburg. The battle of Chancellorsville (May 2d and 3d), where Hooker's army was well-nigh annihilated by Lee, was the culmination of this series of disasters. Lee, moving rapidly down the Shenandoah Valley, entered Pennsylvania. The Northern army, reinforced, and now commanded by Meade, followed, and took up a strong position on the hills near *Gettysburg*, where it was attacked (July 1st) by Lee. This decisive battle, the greatest of the war, began July 1st, and ended July 3d, in a victory for the North.

The day after Gettysburg, Vicksburg surrendered to Grant, Port Hudson followed (July 9th), and the Mississippi, as President Lincoln said, "*ran unvexed to the sea.*"

The Closing Year.—Grant's victory at Chattanooga (November 23-25) secured that important strategical point permanently to the North. After this battle, when Grant had been raised to the chief military command (March 9, 1864), began those grand manœuvres which brought the war to a close. Committing the overthrow of the Georgian army to Sherman, he charged himself with the destruction of the Virginian army. It took him over a year. Finally, on April 3, 1865, the Federal flag floated over the Southern capital. Lee had hurried westward, aiming to unite

THEATRE OF WAR IN THE UNITED STATES.
1861—1865



THE
THEATRE OF WAR IN THE EAST.

SCALE OF STATUTE MILES
0 10 20 30 40 50



with Johnston's army in North Carolina. But Sherman, who had completed his victorious *March to the Sea*, and had entered (March 3, 1865) Goldsborough, North Carolina, barred the path of Lee's retreating army. He surrendered to Grant, April 9th, at *Appomattox Court-house*. Johnston surrendered to Sherman (April 26th). By the end of May, 1865, all the Confederate forces had surrendered. The War of the Great Rebellion was at an end.

AFTER THE WAR.

The Reconstruction Act.—The South had appealed to the sword, and the decision had been against her. She frankly and wisely accepted it, and laid aside all thought of armed resistance. Her leaders did not, however, consent readily to those guarantees of future tranquillity which the North sternly demanded. Congress therefore passed (March 2, 1867) the *Reconstruction Act*, by which the ten Southern States were divided into five military districts, each commanded by an army officer, who should see to the protection of life and property. The seceded States were to be restored to their place in the Union, whenever a convention of delegates, "elected by the male citizens . . . of whatever race, color, or previous condition," except those disfranchised for participation in rebellion, etc., should frame a Constitution, which, being ratified by the people and approved by Congress, should go into operation, and the Legislature thereupon elected should adopt the fourteenth amendment. This amendment secured to the freedmen the right of citizenship, declared the validity of the national debt, and regulated the basis of representation and disqualification from office.

Restoration of the Union.—For five years after the end of the war, some of the Southern States continued to refuse these terms, and consequently continued to endure the evils of military rule. Gradually, however, as time smoothed the bitterness of defeat, they withdrew their refusal and consented to resume their position in the Union on the conditions which were offered to them. In 1870 President Grant was able to announce the complete restoration of the Union, which his own leadership had done so much to save.

Slowly the Southern people began to understand that slavery was not absolutely necessary for the cultivation of cotton.

The largest cotton crop before the war (in 1860) was hardly four and a half million bales. Thirty years later (in 1890) it was almost seven and a half million bales, and it furnished two-thirds of the world's supply of cotton.

Neither is the South exclusively agricultural.

Mills and factories have sprung up everywhere, and it promises to become unsurpassed in the production of manufactured goods. All this was revealed to the world by the **Atlanta Exposition** of 1895.

The Public Debt—On New Year's Day, 1879, specie payments were resumed, after seventeen years of an inconvertible currency. The public debt had reached its maximum, August 31, 1865, on which day it amounted to \$2,845,907,626.56. When specie payments were resumed, more than nine hundred million dollars of the debt had been paid, and on July 1, 1886, it had been reduced over one-half (\$1,389,136,383.40).

At this time it was found that \$100,000,000 were piled up every year in the treasury after all expenses of the government were paid. President Cleveland's recommendation to reduce the tariff *to make the revenue and expenses more nearly equal* was not adopted. The tariff question became then the war-cry for the two great parties.

The **Democrats** demanded a tariff *chiefly for revenue*; the **Republicans** wanted a higher tariff *for the protection of American industry*.

In the election of 1888 the Republicans were entirely successful. They elected not only the President (**Harrison**), but also a majority of both branches of Congress. The result was the passage of the **McKinley Bill** (*a high protective tariff*).

The next election (1892) was gained by the Democrats. A revision of the tariff was made by the **Wilson Bill** (*a lower protective tariff*).

One feature of this tariff revision was an *income tax*. All incomes of over \$4,000 a year were to pay two per cent. The reduction in the tariff rates was, of course, expected to reduce the revenue of government, and this income tax was intended to keep up the revenue and prevent a deficit. But the Supreme Court declared the income tax to be *unconstitutional*.

The Monroe Doctrine.—There was an old dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain about the true boundary line separating Venezuela from British Guiana. The United States insisted that, in justice to Venezuela, England should let the principle of arbitration be applied. England answered, that she would settle her own disputes without the interference of the United States.

The government at Washington, through **Richard Olney**, Secretary of State, declared that this answer was in violation of the **MONROE DOCTRINE**. "*Any attempt on the part of a European nation to interfere with the independence of an American state will be regarded as an unfriendly act.*"

At President Cleveland's suggestion, a Boundary Commission was appointed. But before it could present its report the difficulty had been arranged by an arbitration treaty, as the United States had proposed from the beginning. This resulted in the proposal of a *General Arbitration Treaty* between the United States and Great Britain. Although heartily approved by public opinion in both countries, it was rejected by the Senate.

The Presidential Campaign of 1896.—In 1896 the old question of a protective tariff or a tariff for revenue, although still the distinctive war cry of both parties, was complicated with another question:

"Shall we have a free and unlimited coinage of silver (Democrats), or shall we maintain a gold standard (Republicans)?"

The Republicans carried the election by a strong majority, and at once, directly after McKinley's inauguration, the new congress began once more the revision of the tariff. This resulted in the passage of the Dingley Tariff Bill (July 24, 1897), in the interest of high protection.

War with Spain.—For many years previous to 1895 the people of Cuba had been intermittently struggling to free themselves from the merciless tyranny of Spain. The first revolt in 1823 was followed by others at intervals of two or three years. At length came the great "ten years' war" of 1868-1878, after which there was quiet until 1895, when a new rebellion broke out under abler leaders than ever before. Spain put forth all her strength to crush the insurrection, resorting at last to inhuman practices by which many thousands of helpless non-combatants—old men, women, and children—perished miserably from starvation and disease. Early in 1898 the condition of brave and struggling Cuba appealed irresistibly to the sympathy of the United States. Neutrality was felt to be no longer possible, and this government determined to interfere. Efforts were made in vain to induce the Spanish Government to withdraw from Cuba. Finally on the 19th of April Congress recognized the independence of Cuba, demanded that Spain relinquish her authority there and withdraw from the island, and authorized the President to enforce the demand. War was thus declared.

It was commonly believed throughout the country that Spain had already struck the first blow in the destruction of the United States battle-ship *Maine* in the harbor of Havana, the night of February 15th, where the vessel had been ordered to pay a friendly and official visit. The loss of the splendid ship was attended by the more dreadful loss of many

lives of officers and men—two hundred and sixty-six in all. This awful disaster was found to be the result of an explosion of submarine mines. The responsibility could not be charged to the Spanish Government, yet the conviction was almost universal that the mines had been exploded with the knowledge of Spanish authorities in Havana. Thus the declaration of war found the people of the United States ready to respond to the call for any number of men and any amount of treasure that might be required. With foresight and energy, the coast defences had been improved and the navy greatly strengthened. The regular army was now enlarged to sixty-two thousand men, and a volunteer force of some two hundred thousand men called out. In the engagements which followed, the navy won the larger part, yet there were desperate battles fought on land. On the first day of May an American fleet under Commodore Dewey attacked the Spanish fleet and forts in Manila Bay under command of Admiral Montojo, sunk all the larger vessels and disabled the forts. On July 1st and 2d, the American army in Cuba won the brilliant victories of El Caney and San Juan. On the 3d of July the American fleet under Admiral Sampson, Commodore Schley being in command at the moment, completely destroyed the Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera at Santiago.

In a few months Spain was vanquished and sued for peace. A peace protocol was signed at Paris, August 12th, and hostilities between the two countries were at an end. By the terms of the protocol Spain relinquished forever her claim to Cuba, ceded to the United States Porto Rico and subsidiary islands in the West Indies, the whole Philippine archipelago, and the island of Guam in the Ladrone group. These cessions were confirmed by the Treaty of Paris, December 10, 1898, by which also the United States was to pay \$20,000,000 for the Philippines. Spain was thus left without a foothold on the American continent, and despoiled of her richest possessions in the Pacific. The United States at once occupied Cuba with a military force, preliminary to the formation by the people of the island of an independent government.

Cuba.—A Constitutional Convention met in Havana November 5, 1900, and did not finally adjourn until October 1, 1901. A Constitution for the government of the island was adopted, modelled largely after that of the United States. Certain measures proposed and required by the Congress of the United States in the interest of both parties were appended as a separate ordinance to the Cuban Constitution. The electoral law fixed December 31,

1901 as the day for general elections, including those for governors of provinces and members of the House of Representatives; and February 24, 1902, for the election of President, Vice-President and Senators. On May 20, 1902, the United States formally transferred the island, and the Republic was inaugurated with Tomas Estrada Palma as President.

Insular Governments.—**PORTO RICO** (*capital*, SAN JUAN).—The Porto Ricans welcomed the flag of the United States, and responded eagerly to the efforts made for the improvement of their condition. They began at once with intelligence and vigor to meet their responsibilities as citizens. A form of government for the island was established by the fifty-sixth Congress (April, 1900), providing for a governor and other officers of state, and for a Legislative Assembly composed of two branches—an Executive Council (or Senate), and a House of Delegates. The Governor and the Executive Council are appointed by the President; the members of the House of Delegates are elected by popular vote.

The industrial energies of the people were greatly stimulated by the new conditions and opportunities. The commerce of the island with the United States during the second year of American occupation increased more than thirty per cent. over that of the year before. Unlike the other territories, Porto Rico has not yet a delegate in the national House of Representatives, but is represented at Washington by a Resident Commissioner.

THE PHILIPPINE ARCHIPELAGO (*capital*, MANILA).—In the Philippines an insurrection against the authority of the United States, by several thousand natives, led by Emilio Aguinaldo, broke out in February 1899, and occupied a large force of American soldiers throughout the year. With the opening of 1900 the rebellion was practically at an end, though guerilla warfare continued. Aguinaldo was captured by a stratagem of General Funston, March 23, 1901. Civil government was established, July 4, 1901, and on July 4, 1902, was extended to the entire archipelago. On the same day, President Roosevelt, formally announcing the restoration of peace, proclaimed a general amnesty to those who had been engaged in the insurrection.

Education is fostered zealously and wisely. A thousand trained teachers have been sent to the Islands from the United States.

The total population is probably 9,000,000, and the total area about 120,000 square miles.

GUAM (*capital*, AGANA).—This small island, the southernmost of the Ladrone group, was included in the cessions demanded of Spain

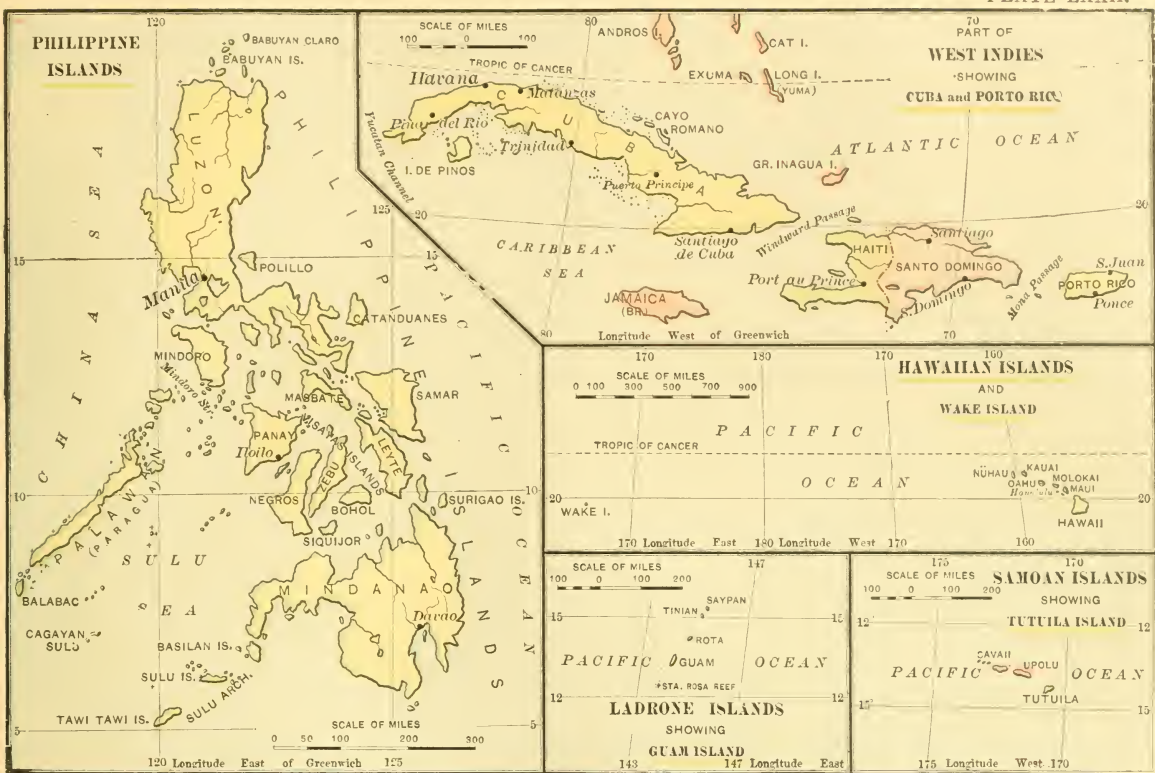
because of its value as a harbor and naval station for American ships in the Pacific. It has scarcely 150 square miles of area, a small part of which is arable. The inhabitants, numbering some nine thousand, are indolent, good-natured, and ignorant. The government is vested in the naval officer in command at the station.

TUTUILA and MANUA (*capital*, PAGO PAGO).—These little islands of the Samoan group in the South Pacific were not taken from Spain, but came into possession of the United States in December, 1899, by tri-partite agreement with Great Britain and Germany, the three powers having previously exercised a joint protectorate over the whole group. The necessity for a naval station in that part of the world was the object of the United States in acquiring the islands. Pago Pago is an ideal harbor and is already used by the Government with much satisfaction.

HAWAII (*capital*, HONOLULU).—While the war with Spain was in progress, the Hawaiian islands, recently become a republic, sought annexation to the United States, and became a part of the nation August 12, 1898. In June, 1900, territorial government was established, similar to that of the Territories on the main-land, with a delegate in the national House of Representatives. The Hawaiians are an easy-going, peace-loving people, and their political affairs present no serious problems. So readily and fully have they adopted the educational and religious ideas of the western world, that it is hard to realize that the Sandwich Islanders were cannibals only three-score years ago.

Hawaii enjoys, of course, free trade with the main-land. Sugar is the chief article of export to the United States. In 1899 the imports from the States amounted to \$15,000,000, and the exports to more than \$22,000,000.

Troops Sent to China.—A terrible outbreak in China occurred in the summer of 1900. It was known as the "Boxer," or anti-foreign movement, and its object was the massacre of all foreigners. The United States joined all the leading nations of the world in hurrying troops to China for the protection of their legations at Peking and their citizens in various parts of the Empire. Many American and English missionaries were murdered, and for several weeks it was reported that the representatives of all governments at Peking, together with their families and friends had been tortured and slain. There was some desperate fighting between the insurgents and the forces of the allied powers in the capture of Tien-sin and Peking. The uprising was overcome, but the gravest questions of international policy remained to be settled.



TERRITORIAL DEPENDENCIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

BORMAY & CO. ENGR'S, N.Y.

1853–1900.



Struthers, Snyders & Co., Engr's and Pr's, N.Y.

MEXICO.

After protracted negotiations a final protocol was signed at Peking, September 7, 1901, all the allied powers concurring, and Li Hung Chang signing for China. By this agreement the principle of the "open door" was practically established, and also the permanent security of the persons and property of all foreigners. Other demands on China by way of reparation and atonement for the injuries suffered through her failure to prevent or put down the outbreak were at length agreed to, including the payment of an indemnity amounting to \$333,900,000.

The Presidential Election in November, 1900, found the same republican and democratic candidates in the field, as in 1896. President McKinley was re-elected by an increased majority. He began his second term, March 4, 1901, under the happiest auspices, exalted in the admiration and esteem of all men above almost any other head of a great nation. But he had few remaining days. On Friday, September 4th, while holding a public reception in the Temple of Music at the Pan-American Exposition, in Buffalo, he was shot by an assassin. The President lived a little more than

a week, and died in the early morning of September 14th. On the same day a few hours later the Vice-President, Theodore Roosevelt, took the oath of office, and succeeded to the Presidency.

THE CHIEF MAGISTRATES OF THE UNITED STATES

Name.	Elected from	Term.	Born.	Died.
George Washington.	Virginia	1789-1797	1733	1799
John Adams.....	Massachusetts..	1797-1801	1735	1826
Thomas Jefferson...	Virginia	1801-1809	1743	1826
James Madison.....	Virginia	1809-1817	1751	1836
James Monroe.....	Virginia	1817-1825	1759	1831
John Quincy Adams.	Massachusetts..	1825-1829	1767	1848
Andrew Jackson....	Tennessee.....	1829-1837	1767	1845
Martin Van Buren...	New York.....	1837-1841	1782	1862
William H. Harrison	Ohio.....	March-April, 1841	1773	1841
John Tyler.....	Virginia	1841-1845	1790	1862
James K. Polk.....	Tennessee.....	1845-1849	1795	1849
Zachary Taylor.....	Louisiana.....	1849-1850	1784	1850
Millard Fillmore....	New York.....	1850-1853	1800	1874
Franklin Pierce.....	New Hampshire	1853-1857	1804	1869
James Buchanan....	Pennsylvania...	1857-1861	1791	1868
Abraham Lincoln...	Illinois	1861-1865	1809	1865
Andrew Johnson....	Tennessee.....	1865-1869	1808	1875
Ulysses S. Grant....	Illinois	1869-1877	1822	1885
Rutherford B. Hayes	Ohio.....	1877-1881	1822	1893
James A. Garfield..	Ohio.....	March-Sept., 1881	1831	1881
Chester A. Arthur...	New York.....	1881-1885	1830	1886
Grover Cleveland...	New York.....	1885-1889	1837	
Benjamin Harrison..	Indiana.....	1889-1893	1833	1901
Grover Cleveland...	New York.....	1893-1897	1837	
William McKinley...	Ohio.....	1897-1901	1844	1901
Theodore Roosevelt.	New York.....	1901-	1858	

MEXICO.

Before the Spanish Conquest, 1521.—What the Spanish chroniclers of the 16th century called the *Empire of the Montezumas* was nothing but a confederacy of three Indian tribes, of which the **Aztecs** gave the name to the union. It was only a feeble league, with easily broken bonds, surrounded by bitter hostile tribes ready to join the Spaniards in their attack upon it. The stronghold of the Confederacy was the **Pueblo of Mexico**, which had been founded by the Aztecs about 1325, upon an island in the midst of the largest of the lakes of the famous Anahuac plateau.

To this city Cortes led his little army of hardly 600 men. They were soon joined, however, by several thousand **Tlascalans**, ancient enemies of the Aztecs. At first hospitably received, they were driven soon from the city by the Aztecs on account of their boundless rapacity. But Cortes once more advanced upon the city, which, after a long siege, fell into his hands.

The last native chief Guatemozin was put to death. The surviving natives were ordered to leave the city, which was repopulated by the Spaniards and their allies.

Mexico a Spanish Colony.

The colonial period covers exactly 300 years—from the death of Guatemozin in 1521 to the

withdrawal of the last Spanish viceroy, Don Juan O'Donoju, in 1821. During this period the attitude of the natives was rather one of sullen submission than of active resistance to grinding oppression.

By the Spanish Government Mexico was looked on merely as a vast metalliferous region, to be jealously guarded against foreign intrusion, and worked exclusively for the benefit of the crown.

Although the natives were distributed among the plantations and the mines—which system proved fatal to the aborigines of Cuba and Hayti—the hardy race of the Anahuac plateau successfully resisted these blighting influences. Besides they derived practical advantages from contact and partial fusion with a people of higher culture.

Under the Spanish administration, Mexico or **New Spain** formed a viceroyalty at one time stretching from the *Isthmus of Panama* to *Vancouver's Island*. Antonio de Mendoza, appointed in 1535, was the first of 64 viceroys, who ruled with almost autocratic power, but hardly any of whom has left a name in history.

Independence.—Mexico's trade had been crippled; and its offices were held by Spaniards. Napoleon I.'s summons to recognize the government of his brother Joseph was met by

the formation of hostile Juntas, under whose rule Mexico learned the possibility and the expediency of self-government. The result was the independence of Mexico was proclaimed in 1821 by Iturbide, a descendant of the old Imperial House of Mexico, who assumed the crown under the title of Emperor Augustine I.

Santa Anna.—A republican rising overthrew him, and Santa Anna proclaimed the Republic at Vera Cruz in 1823. Iturbide had to flee to Europe, and on his return in 1824 was shot. A Federal Republic was now organized, with a constitution based on that of the United States. For the next thirty years Santa Anna, a tall, thin man, with sun-browned face, is the prominent figure in Mexican politics. His popularity ebbed and flowed with the exigencies of the time. He repelled an invasion by Spain and an invasion by France, and these triumphs raised him to the highest pinnacle of public favor. Then his power decayed and he was forced to flee from his country. But when Mexico was threatened with new dangers he was recalled from his banishment and placed in supreme command. His public life was closed by a hasty flight to Havana. Throughout his whole career his principal support had been the clergy.

Clericals and Liberals.—The Mexican clergy were possessed of vast wealth and influence. Fully one-half the land of the country belonged to them, and a large portion of the remainder was mortgaged to them. Their spiritual prerogatives were held to exempt them from taxation, and thus the whole weight of the national burden fell upon the smaller division of the national property. It was the concern of this powerful interest to maintain its own privileges, and to repress the growth of liberal sentiments among the people. But in the course of years the growing demand for reform overcame the priestly defence of their privileges and the Mexicans took a large step toward the vindication of their liberties. The leader in this revolution was Benito Juarez, a Toltec Indian, whose personal ability and skill in the management of affairs gained for him the opportunity of conferring upon Mexico the fullest measure of political liberty which she had ever received. The Liberals were now a majority in Congress. One of their first acts was to declare the subjection of the clergy to civil law. Two years later came the abolition of clerical privileges, liberty of religion, a free press, and the opening of the country to immigration. The Clerical party rose in civil war to crush this aggressive liberalism. Juarez and his Government were driven for a time from the capital, and withdrew to Vera Cruz, from

whence he promulgated his *Laws of Reform*: Suppression of the monastic orders; establishment of civil marriage and confiscation of the church lands. Next year the Liberals triumphed over their enemies, and the Government returned to the capital. The leading Clericals were exiled, who sought and found a refuge at the Court of Napoleon III.

Here, out of revenge, they induced Napoleon to demand from Juarez, under pain of instant war, the payment of the debts contracted by the previous administration.

THE NAPOLEONIC DESIGNS.

Bankruptcy.—Mexico had been for many years a heavy borrower in the European markets. On the verge of bankruptcy, she had entered into arrangements to pay off her debts by mortgaging some of her revenues. But in July, 1861, the Mexican Government and Congress, driven by dire necessity, adopted a resolution taking the whole product of the Mexican revenues into their own hands and suspending all payments to foreign claimants. It was this step which enabled the Clerical refugees to induce Napoleon to ask England and Spain to interfere.

The French Claims.—Had Mexico had only England to deal with, the matter would probably have been settled. But France, although her claims were of a peculiar nature, and trifling compared with those of England, was only too glad to have a pretext to carry out her ulterior designs. When the Miramon Government were gradually losing their hold on the country and totally penniless, the Swiss house of Jecker & Co., in Mexico, lent them \$750,000 and received, in return for the advance, bonds to be payable at some future period to the amount of \$15,000,000. Shortly after this outrageous proceeding, Miramon was upset, and succeeded by his rival Juarez, who was then called on by Jecker, who was under French protection, to pay the above-named sum, on the plea that one Government must be held responsible for the acts and obligations of the other. Juarez refused to do so, and in this resolution was supported by the opinion of all impartial people.

Ulterior Designs of France.—From the Mexican exiles in Paris, Napoleon learned that attempts had been made by some Confederate statesmen to come to an understanding with the Liberal party in Mexico, with a view to a political union, the result of which was to be a grand empire encircling the gulf of Mexico.

The Mexican exiles, who belonged to the Clerical party, saw in the success of this scheme the utter downfall of their party and the an-

nihilation of all their hopes. They proposed to Napoleon, in order to prevent this union, to establish a French protectorate over Mexico.

Just at that time (July, 1861) the action of the Mexican Government (the above-mentioned suspension of payments to foreign claimants) gave Napoleon a pretext to interfere in the affairs of the Republic.

Ever since the peace of Villafranca he had been desirous to conciliate Austria. He perceived with satisfaction that an opportunity had now arrived for carrying out his friendly intentions toward the house of Austria. The plan was :

1. To consider the Mexican exiles in Paris as the true representatives of the Mexican nation and promise them his protection.

2. To encourage the Confederates in the United States, with the view of neutralizing the power of the Union.

3. To overthrow, by a military expedition, the existing government of Juarez in Mexico.

4. To establish, by French arms, an empire, and offer its crown to the Austrian Archduke Maximilian, brother of the Emperor of Austria.

Napoleon was now determined, of course, that under no circumstances should any compromise or accommodation of any sort take place. The grand object was to get into motion an expedition of some kind. Once in Mexico, the rest would follow. England and Spain were invited to join France in an expedition to Mexico for the enforcing of the claims of the foreign creditors.

The London Convention.—Early in the progress of the negotiations for an *allied expedition to Mexico* suspicions began to be felt by England that advantage would be taken of this expedition to interfere in the internal affairs of Mexico and convert the Republic into a monarchy. England, unfortunately, suspected the wrong party—Spain, whose former relations with Mexico suggested it.

But Spain solemnly declared that it had no views of conquest upon Mexico.

The French Government did even more than this. It disclaimed all notion on its own part of forcible interference. England was satisfied, and on November 20, 1861, a convention was signed in London between France, England, and Spain, by which it was agreed that a joint force should be sent by the three allies to Mexico ; that no special advantages should be sought for by them individually ; that no internal influence on Mexico should be exerted ; and that a commission should be designated to distribute the indemnity they proposed to exact.

The Allied Expedition.—When the expedition reached Vera Cruz, about the end of 1861, the English and Spanish commissioners proposed that the Mexican Government should be called upon at once to pay up or guarantee all fair claims which should be certified by a commission, and to make reparation for outrages. The French commissioners proposed to claim \$12,000,000 without details or items, besides the \$15,000,000 of the Jecker transaction.

The English commissioner (Sir Charles Wyke) complained that the French demand could only lead to war, as no nation could be expected to accede to it. But there arose even more serious differences than these.

Suddenly there appeared in the French camp, under French protection, the exiled Clericals. They scattered broadcast proclamations announcing that they had come, by order of Napoleon, to found a Mexican empire. The English and Spanish commissioners declared this action of the French a violation of the London Convention, and withdrew, with their contingents.

The French Conquest of Mexico.—Immediately after the break-up of the alliance, the French commenced their march on Mexico. But (May 5, 1862) the Mexican general, Zaragoza, drove them back from Puebla with terrible slaughter. Then Napoleon saw that the struggle was to be a reality, and made arrangements accordingly. In September General Forey, with 2,500 men, landed at Vera Cruz. Puebla was taken (May 18, 1863) after a most obstinate defence. This capture broke the heart of the Mexican resistance, and the French entered the city of Mexico (June 10, 1863).

THE MEXICAN EMPIRE.

Erection of the Empire.—General Forey had appointed a junta of thirty-five notables, charged to elect a triumvirate, which, in its turn, had to convoke an assembly of 215 members to determine the form of government. This assembly decided (July 7th) that Mexico should become an empire, and offered the crown to the Archduke Maximilian of Austria, who accepted it about a year later (April 10, 1864). Before Maximilian started for his empire, he had concluded a treaty with Napoleon, by virtue of which the French army should be gradually reduced, while Mexico was to repay to France her expenses.

On April 13th, Maximilian and his wife Carlotta quitted the soil of Austria ; on May 28th they cast anchor in the harbor of Vera Cruz ; and on June 12, 1864, they entered the City of Mexico.

Juarez and his Government withdrew, to maintain a patriot war in which the mass of the people zealously upheld them. Maximilian sat upon his throne without support, excepting that which the Clerical party of Mexico and the bayonets of France supplied, while the Juarists increased in strength and flooded the country with guerilla bands.

In consequence of the increased activity of these guerillas, Bazaine, Forey's successor, induced Maximilian to sign an order to treat all guerilla bands as brigands, and apply to them the utmost rigor of the law (October 3, 1865). He did not foresee that in putting his hand to this order, he was signing his own death-warrant.

The Withdrawal of the French.—A few years earlier or later these things dared not have been done, but when the French troops entered Mexican territory, the United States waged, not yet with clear prospect of success, a struggle on the results of which depended their own existence as a nation. They had no thoughts to give to the concerns of other American states, and they wisely suffered the Empire of Mexico to run its sad and foolish course. But now the Civil War was ended, and the Government at Washington, having at its call a million of veteran soldiers, intimated to Napoleon that the further stay of his troops on the American continent had become impossible.

Napoleon was only waiting an occasion to withdraw his stake, and this hint from Washington furnished him the wished-for opportunity. Maximilian, who fully understood by this time the true condition of Mexico, and foresaw all the dangers of his position when the French troops should be withdrawn, sent Carlotta at this crisis to Europe to represent the condition of things to Napoleon. Though denied access, she forced her way into his presence, and in her frantic grief upbraided herself before him, that, in accepting a throne from his hand, she had forgotten that she was a daughter of the race of Orleans.

Meantime matters in Mexico grew worse every day. Bazaine and his forces had abandoned the cause of Maximilian. Prior to their withdrawal, the French Government made sev-

eral efforts to induce Maximilian to abdicate. "I know all the difficulties before me," he replied, "but I shall not give up my post" (November 8, 1866). Nevertheless, Maximilian, after he had received the news of his wife's insanity, made up his mind not to remain long in Mexico. But his generals gathered round him, and persuaded him to remain, promising him the support of men and money (December 1, 1866).

Fall of the Empire.—The departure of the French troops (February 7, 1867) left the way clear for the Liberal party. It rapidly gained strength and prepared to besiege Maximilian in the capital.

In order not to expose the City of Mexico to the horrors of a siege, he retired to Queretaro, where General Miramon had gathered together a little army of about eight thousand men. Here they were besieged by the Liberals under Escobedo, who, by Lopez's treason, entered the town, May 15, 1867. Maximilian was taken prisoner, and placed before a court-martial. He was accused of usurpation, of instigating and exciting civil war, and of causing the death of forty thousand patriots, hanged and shot in consequence of his order of October 3, 1865.

Condemned to be shot, he was executed June 19, 1866, at Queretaro. (Plate LXIX.)

Since these disorders, ending with the death of Maximilian, Mexico has turned to peaceful ways, and the city of Mexico has become a great centre of civilizing influences for the surrounding semi-barbarous tribes. Since 1869 the Liberal party has succeeded in preserving peace both at home and abroad, while establishing democratic institutions on a firm basis. For the first time in its chequered history Mexico may look forward, with some confidence, to a bright future.

The plague spot is the uncivilized Indian element, which embraces more than half of the population.

But with boundless natural resources at its disposal, an administration like that of the cautious Porfirio Diaz (re-elected for the *third time* July 15, 1896) may hope to overcome that difficulty, and gradually to effect a complete fusion of the antagonistic racial elements.

SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE States of South America, settled in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, have passed through many revolutions in their struggles for deliverance from Spain. The Argentine Republic, including Bolivia, established its independence in 1810. Chile, Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada achieved their liberty in the next ten years. Peru won freedom in 1824 and

Brazil became a republic in 1898. The most of these states have grown rapidly in commercial importance and political dignity.

The little republics of Central America have been extremely unstable politically, and are noted chiefly for their valuable exports of fine hard woods, dye stuffs, and medicinal roots and barks.

THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

It is impossible as yet to review the Nineteenth Century as a whole in the way we can regard the Eighteenth Century. It will not be until time allows us to see the century in long perspective that we can safely define certain of the characteristics which will unquestionably differentiate it from its predecessors. The events of the first years of the Twentieth Century alone can determine whether certain tendencies apparent in the latter quarter of the Nineteenth Century are to prevail as significant and achieving movements, or are to transpire to have been arrested currents.

Political rivalries between nations have been largely supplanted by commercial competitions. Side by side with these demands for national business enlargement, has been growing a sense of human fraternity and mutual comprehension. Both forces have had a marked development during the last quarter of the century. But only subsequent events can indicate which is the dominant historical note of these latter years.

Again, there has been, during the last quarter of the century, a signal extension of socialistic sentiment, not alone among the laborers, but, in a large variety of gradations, among the more well-to-do thinking classes. Along with that is also evident a strong reaction toward individualism in commerce and industry. The events of the next few years may prove which of these sentiments has been the deep, characteristic current, and which the eddy.

There are other notes, however, which beyond question belong to the Nineteenth Century.

On the material side, its inventions and scientific discoveries have distanced, both in number and magnitude of importance, those of any other century. It has produced the locomotive, and the rapid traffic by land which makes great nations as closely knit in commerce and industry as counties were in the preceding ages. It has made the steamboat, which turned the vast and dubious oceans into unbarred roadways for travel and trade. It introduced mankind to the new and almost

supernatural world of electricity, which has already brought all civilized spots of earth within actual speaking distance of each other; which has turned night into day, which has given to mechanics a power subtle and effectual beyond men's most fanciful dreams of possibility.

The properties of light have disclosed themselves in photography, which has further called electricity to its aid for pictures of actual movement, and for sight through solid and opaque bodies. Medical science has during the hundred years taken such leaps that the devoted and laborious practitioner of other times seems, in comparison, like a barbarian. The application of anæsthetics has relieved surgery of its deadly torture. The discovery of the germ-principle has put medicine on an absolutely sure scientific basis, and has given the surgeon a thousand-fold greater power of saving life than of old.

If literature and art have not added new giants to the few ancient masters, the century has produced a multitude of creative writers and inspired artists of the second rank, and unnumbered swarms of minds and hands that have at least done creditable work. It has been the century of popular education, and the valleys of humanity have been lifted for the first time to a noble plain.

This century has been the age of vast practical reforms. It has seen slavery wholly abolished throughout the civilized world. It has witnessed the steady and unretreating rise of democracy against the government of the privileged classes. It has seen the people's intrepid battle against the corruptions in their own democracy.

Philanthropy has, during this century, become for the first time in history an organized science, and with its gain in effectiveness it has gained more in breadth, and still more in devotion. If, in some quarters, religion is less marked as a passion for theologic beliefs, it is the more disseminated as an altruism. The sufferings of others excite a most marked sympathy, and a determined will for relief, and they also stimulate an intelligent efficiency

of method which is a distinguishing mark of the present age above all that have gone before.

In the movement of nations among themselves, in the change of national boundaries, and in the growths of new powers, the century presents an extraordinary spectacle.

At its beginning the world-powers were Great Britain and Spain. The British sphere was on all seas, and her great colonies were at the most strategic points of the earth. Spain possessed nearly all of the Western Hemisphere south of the State of Georgia and west of the Allegheny Mountains. Suddenly France sprung from her Revolution into a competition for the world leadership. She absorbed from Spain a vast wedge in the middle of what is now the territory of the United States, and though she quickly parted with it to the young Western Republic, she maintained for a dozen years a bloody and imperial primacy of Europe. Soon following the fall of French imperialism, in 1815, began the disintegration of the superb Spanish empire by a series of revolts and the upbuilding of new American nationalities, which continued until the end of the century sees the decrepit and corrupt power of Spain banished from the Western Hemisphere and the islands of the Pacific.

On the other hand, three new powers have, during the century, arisen in Europe as balancing and dominant factors. A united Italy has made the peoples of the old Roman peninsula into a new nation. A united Germany, enlarging by reprisals from Austria and France, has made the Fatherland a nation of iron. A centralized Russia, silently strengthening, has entered the camp-grounds of Europe as a full equal and a possible superior. The French Republic, singly, is at a disadvantage as against the military power of either Russia, Germany, or Great Britain. But, by strange and unnatural alliances of temporary expediency, the balance of continental power has been preserved and the dreaded clash of arms between the great nations averted for a quarter of a century. Russia's war upon Turkey, and Turkey's victory over Greece have not been suffered to break the calm in Eastern Europe

which the great nations maintain with an unprecedented solicitude and fear.

But outside of Europe itself the great nations have extended their empires with perilous impetuosity. Africa, opened by adventurers and missionaries, has been parcelled out in commercial possessions among the leading powers; and Great Britain's sanguinary struggle for supremacy in South Africa closed the century's final year. Following Japan's victory over China, the footholds which the great European nations had previously gained are stretching into partitions of the Yellow Empire. The unchecked uprising of the Chinese people against the missionaries and the embassies of the Christian nations, with the swift and terrible punishment that followed makes China a vassal to the civilized world, but with a reserved explosiveness which is certain to make large avenues in the history of the Twentieth Century. Notwithstanding the rapid growth of the new powers, Great Britain, by her matchless sea force and by her good sense, still holds the primacy of the world empire.

Without foreign alliances, with wide-open hospitality to the emigrants of Europe, and with a gradual extension of national domain from the Allegheny Mountains to the Pacific, to Alaska, and to islands of the tropic seas, the United States has presented the most marvellous political spectacle of the century. Beginning as an infant Republic, with scattered and sparse population; absorbing into itself varied types of foreign life; fighting wars without and a most desperate war within; welding itself into an indivisible Nation with a passionate patriotism; a shrewd commercial people, yet self-purifying and right-hearted; peace-lovers above all men, yet chivalrous for the oppressed to the extent of battle; of restless energy and aggressiveness, even opening to woman every field of business effort; of untold ingenuity and resource, yet conservative in temper; the Republic of the West, believing itself to be bearing the happiness of mankind in its own march of faith and progress, is the crowning creation of the Nineteenth Century.—THE PUBLISHERS.

GENEALOGIES.

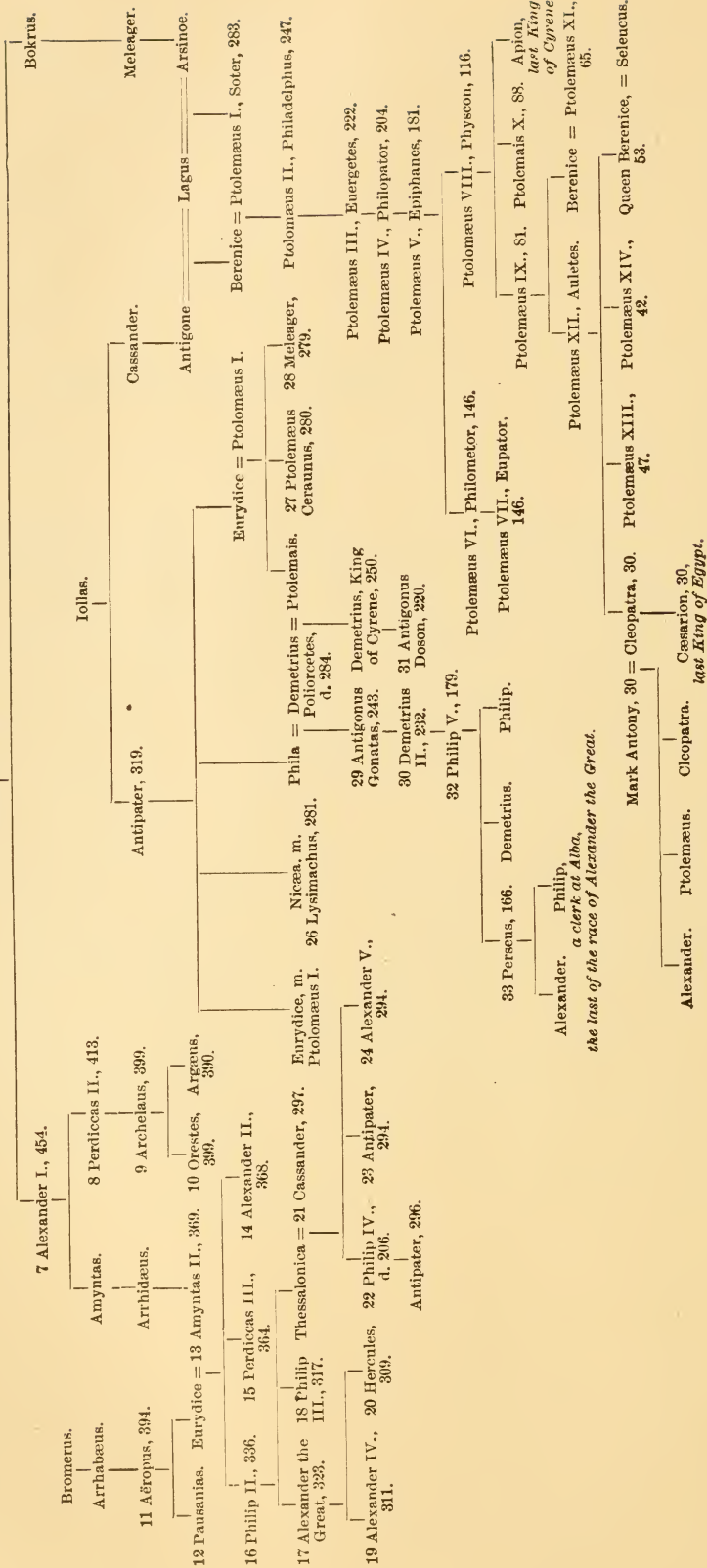
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|---|---|
| I.—THE TEMENIDÆ AND ANTIGONIDÆ OF MACEDONIA, AND THE LAGIDÆ OF EGYPT. | XV.—THE HOUSE OF WETTIN. |
| II.—THE JULIAN HOUSE. | XV.A.—THE SPANISH SUCCESSION. |
| III.—THE HOUSE OF SEVERUS. | XVI.—THE HOUSE OF WITTELSBACH. |
| IV.—THE HOUSE OF CONSTANTINE. | XVII.—THE HOUSE OF OLDENBURG. |
| V.—THE HOUSE OF THEODOSIUS. | XVIII.—THE HOUSE OF LORRAINE AND THE GUISES. |
| VI.—MOHAMMEDAN DYNASTIES AND OTTOMAN SOVEREIGNS. | XIX.—ANCESTORS AND DESCENDANTS OF CHARLES V. AND FERDINAND I. |
| VII.—MEROVINGIANS. | XX.—THE HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN. |
| VIII.—CARLOVINGIANS. | XXI.—THE HOUSE OF CERDIC. |
| IX.—SAXON AND SALIAN EMPERORS. | XXII.—THE HOUSE OF GODWIN. |
| X.—THE HOUSE OF LUXEBURG. | XXIII.—THE FRENCH SUCCESSION IN 1327. |
| XI.—GUELPHS AND HOHENSTAUFEN. | XXIV.—THE HOUSE OF TUDOR. |
| XII.—VALESIAN KINGS OF FRANCE AND THE HOUSES OF SFORZA AND ARAGON. | XXV.—THE ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS. |
| XIII.—THE CLEVES-JULIERS SUCCESSION. | XXVI.—THE RULERS OF FRANCE. |
| XIV.—BURGUNDY. | XXVII.—THE HOUSE OF SAVOY. |
| | XXVIII.—THE HOUSE OF ROMANOFF. |
| | XXIX.—THE HOUSE OF BOURBON. |

I.—THE TEMENIDÆ AND ANTIGONIDÆ OF MACEDONIA, AND THE LAGIDÆ OF EGYPT.

“Soldats sous Alexandre et rois après sa mort.”

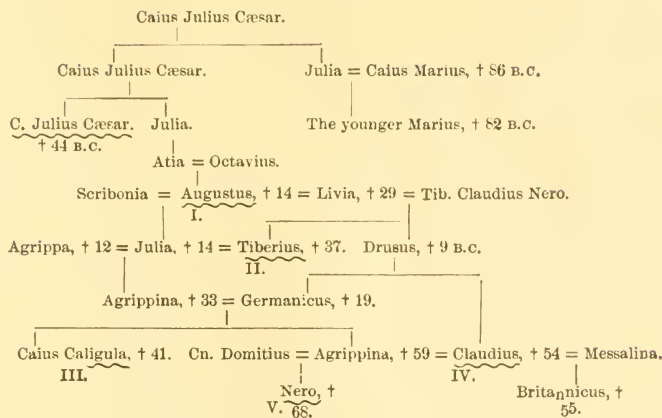
1 Perdiccas I., 650.
—
2 Argæus, 620.
—
3 Philip, 590.
—
4 Aëropus, 565.
—
5 Alcetas, 537.
—
6 Amyntas I., 498.

Kings of Macedonia are numbered 1-33.



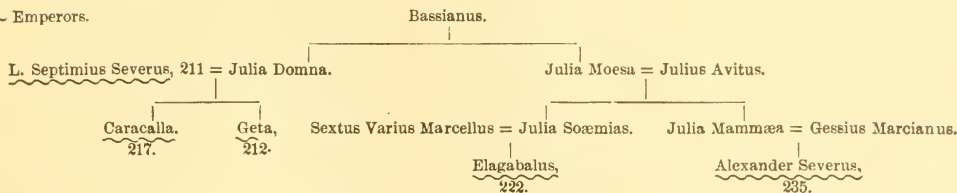
II.—THE JULIAN HOUSE.

~~~~~ Emperors.

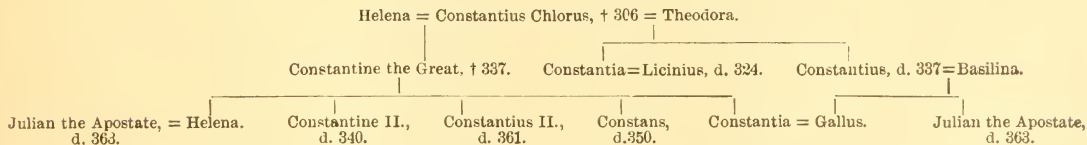


## III.—THE HOUSE OF SEVERUS, 193–235, A.D.

~~~~~ Emperors.

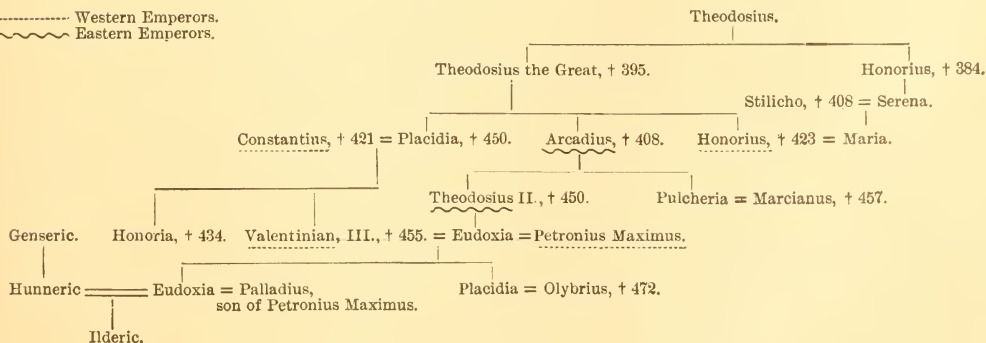


IV.—THE HOUSE OF CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.



V.—THE HOUSE OF THEODOSIUS THE GREAT.

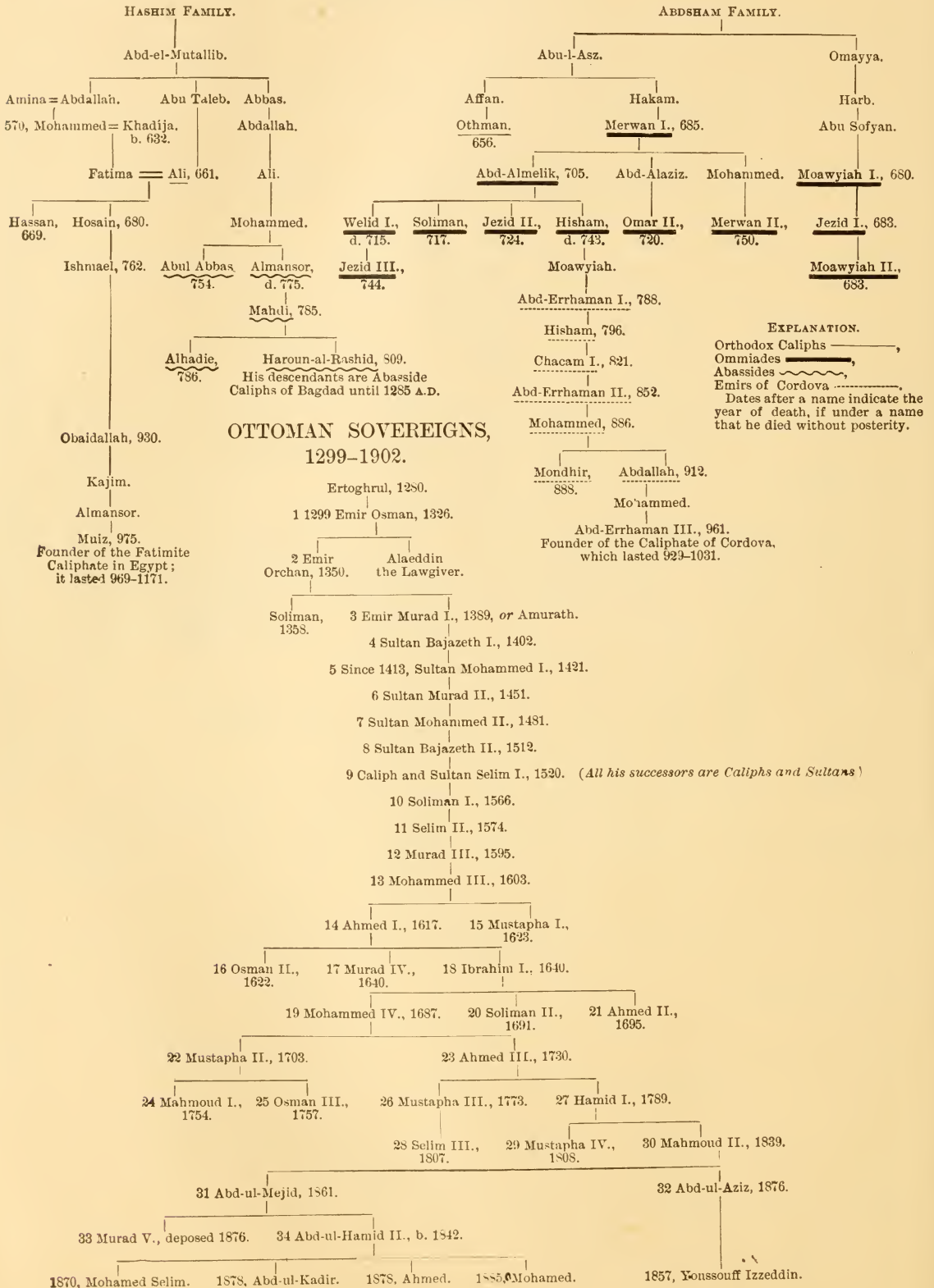
----- Western Emperors.
~~~~~ Eastern Emperors.



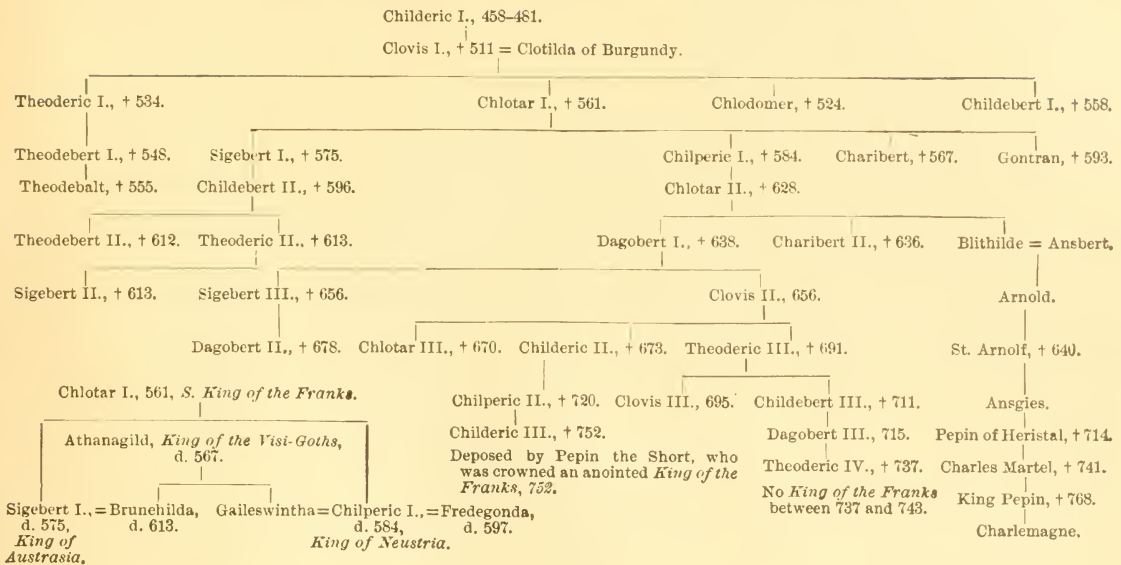


## VI.—THE PRINCIPAL MOHAMMEDAN DYNASTIES.

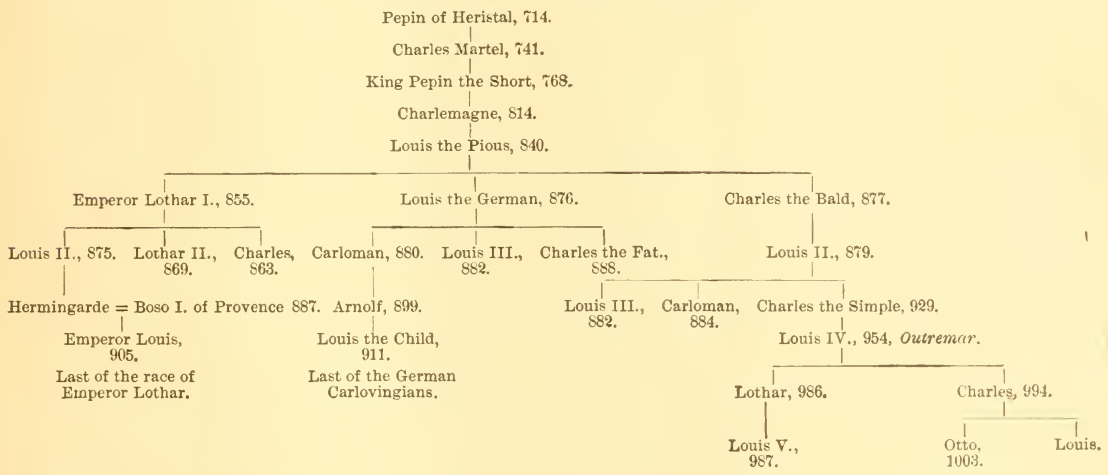
About A.D. 400 we find the Banu Kinána settled around the Kába, the sanctuary of a number of confederate tribes belonging to that district. The Koraish were that branch of the Kinána who had settled in Mecca. One of their subdivisions was the Kozai, who formed a union of many clans, among them the Abd Menaf. Their most important families were the Hashims and Abdshams.



## VII.—GENEALOGY OF THE MEROVINGIANS.

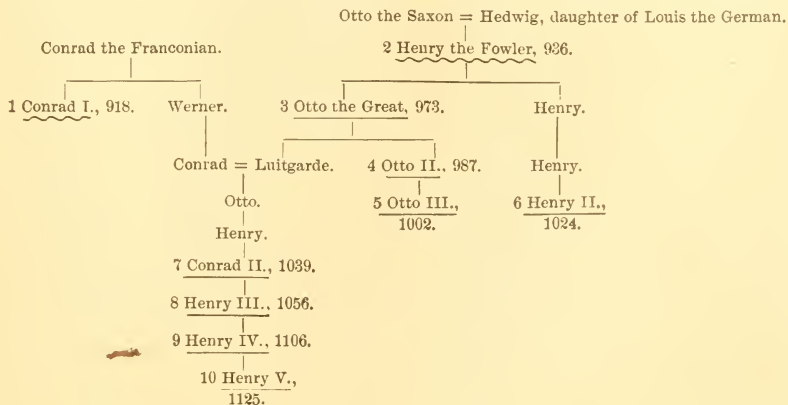


## VIII.—GENEALOGY OF THE CARLOVINGIANS.



## IX.—GENEALOGY OF THE SAXON AND THE FRANCONIAN OR SALIAN EMPERORS.

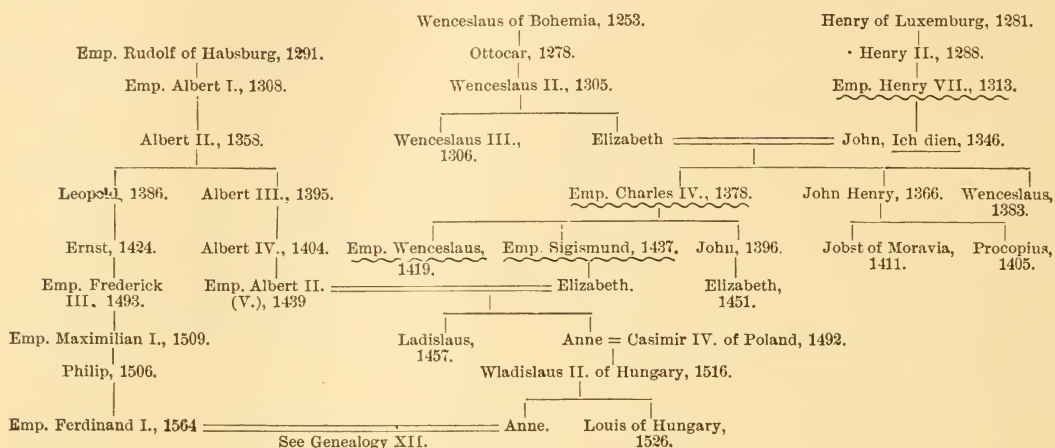
German kings ~~~~~, emperors ———. The numbers denote the succession : 2-6 the Saxon line, 7-10 the Salic line.





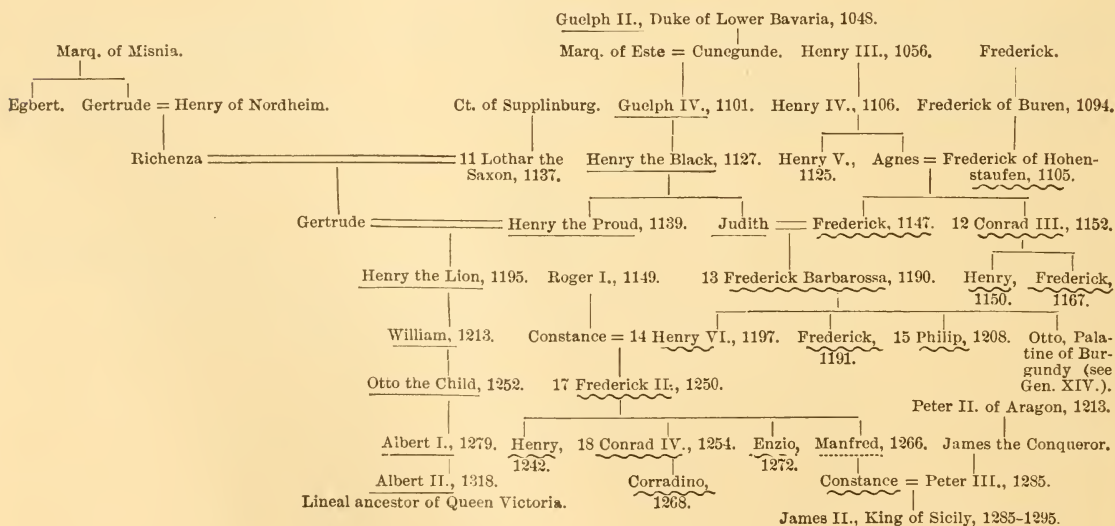
## X.—GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF LUXEMBURG AND ITS CONNECTIONS.

The four Luxemburg Emperors marked ~~~~.

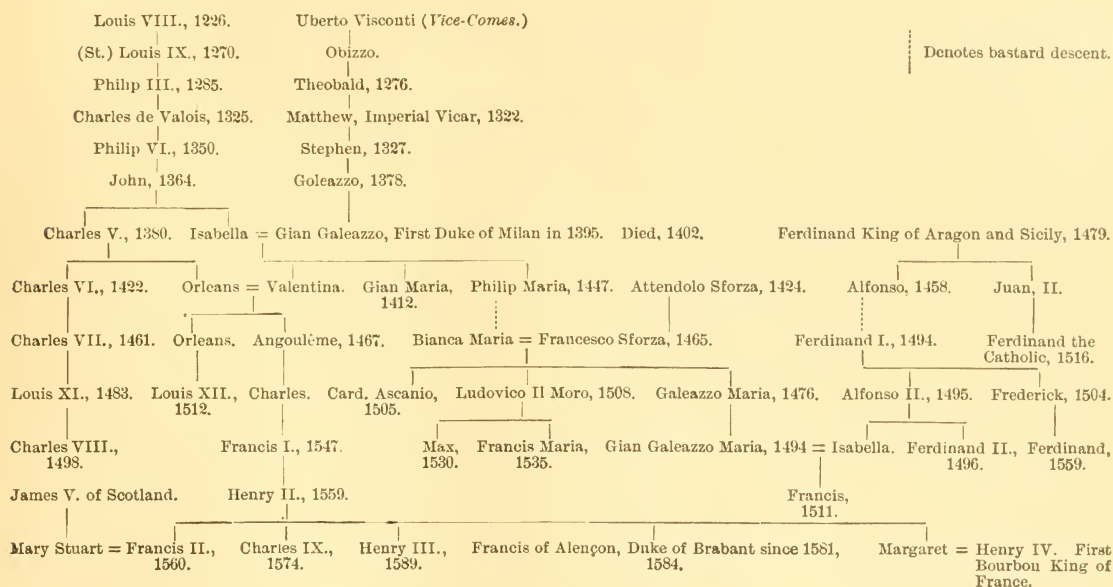


## XI.—GENEALOGY OF THE GUELPHS AND HOHENSTAUFEN.

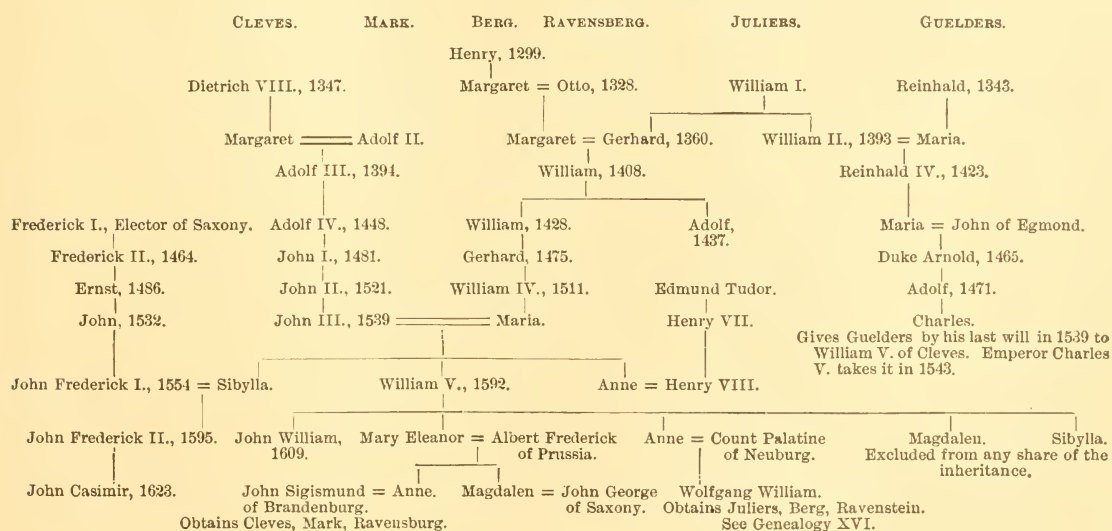
EXPLANATION.—Year after name, date of death; Year under a name, died without issue; Guelphs, ———; Hohenstaufen, ~~~~. The numbers denote the succession; 12-18 Hohenstaufen Emperors. Not connected with the Dynasty of the Hohenstaufen are: 16, Otto IV., Emp. in 1209; 19, William of Holland, 1247-1256; 20, Richard of Cornwallis; 1257-1271.



## XII.—GENEALOGY SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE VALESIAN KINGS OF FRANCE AND THE HOUSES OF THE VISCONTI, SFORZA, AND ARAGON.



## XIII.—GENEALOGY SHOWING THE FORMATION AND DIVISION OF THE CLEVES-JULIERS INHERITANCE.

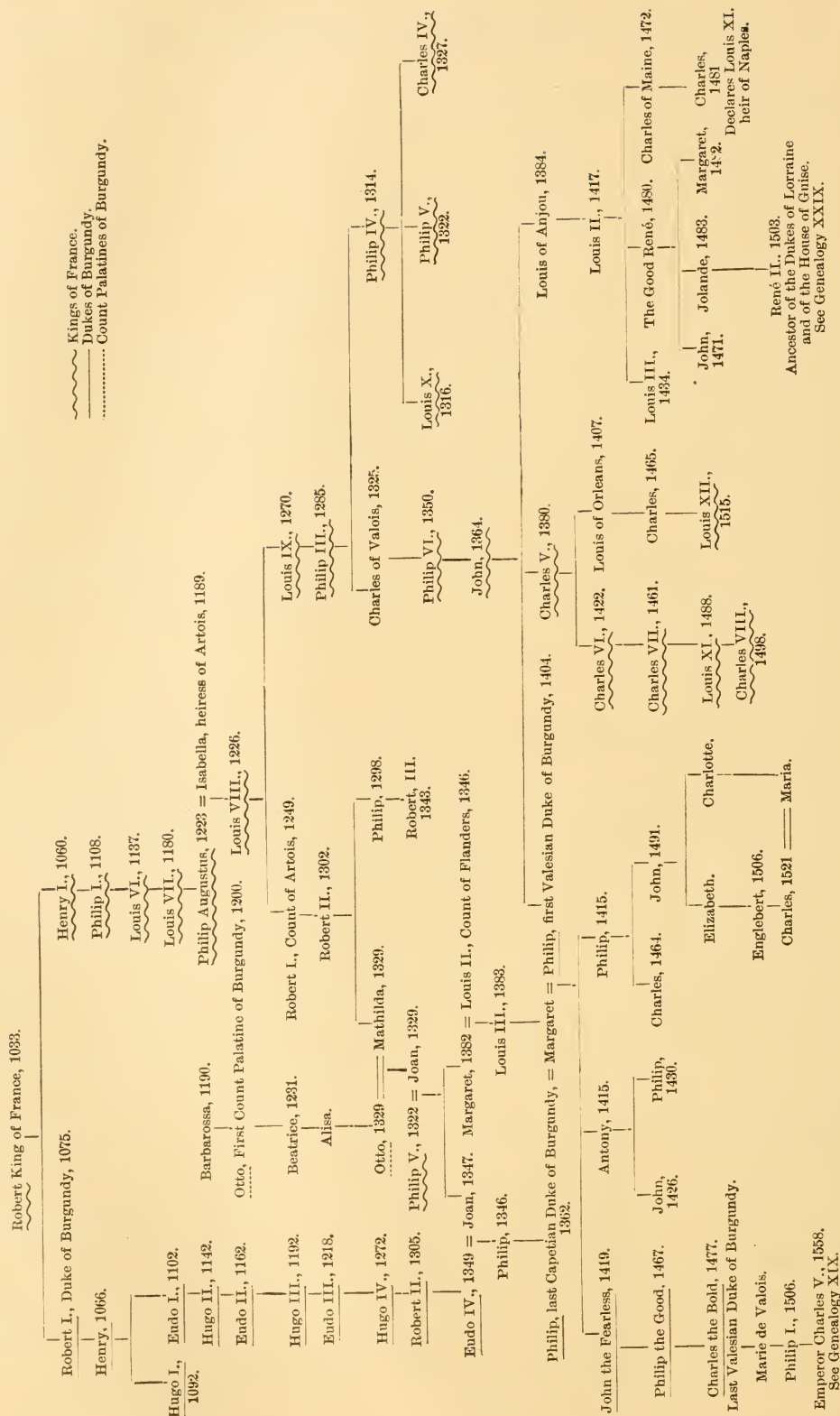


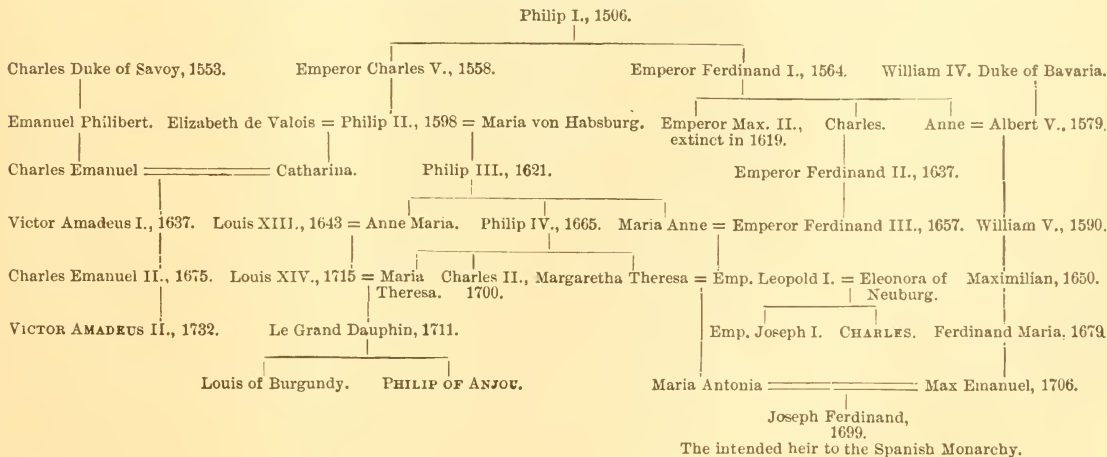


# XIV.—GENEALOGY SHOWING THE CAPETIAN AND VALESIAN DUKES OF BURGUNDY.

THE COUNT PALATINES OF BURGUNDY, THE UNION OF THE TWO BURGUNDIES UNDER THE VALESIAN DUKES WITH ARTOIS, FLANDERS, ETC.

For Explanation see page 97.







# XVI—GENEALOGY OF THE ELDER OR PALATINE BRANCH OF THE HOUSE OF WITTELSBACH, WHICH, SINCE 1777, RULES ALSO IN BAVARIA.

This Table shows also the claimants of the Palatinate in 1685. The Elector Palatines are numbered 1-18, the Kings of Bavaria (since 1806) I-V.

Louis II., Duke of Bavaria and Count Palatine, 1294.

Emperor Louis the Bavarian, 1347.  
See Genealogy XIX.

Rudolf, 1319.

Adolphus, 1327.

Rupert, 1398.

King Rupert, 1410. (*Clem*)

1 Louis III., 1436.

Stephen, 1459.

2 Louis IV., 1449. 3 Frederick I., 1476. Frederick, 1480.

John, 1509.

4 Philip, 1508.

5 Louis V., 1544. 6 Frederick II., 1556. Rupert, 1504. John II., 1557.

7 Otto, 1559. 8 Frederick III., 1576.

9 Louis VI., 1583.

Mary Queen of Scots.

10 Frederick IV., 1610.

James I., 1625.

Henry IV., 1610.

11 Frederick V., 1632 = Elizabeth, 1662. Charles I., 1649.

12 Charles Louis, 1680.

Sophia, = Ernest Augustus, 1698, d. 1714

13 Charles, 1685.

George I., 1727.

Louis XIV. Philip of Orleans = Elizabeth, 1685.

The Regent, 1723.

Bourgogne, 1712. Louis, 1752.

Frederick, 1751.

Louis XV., 1774. Louis Philippe, 1785.

George III., 1820.

Dauphin, 1765. Egalité, 1792.

Duke of Kent, 1820.

Louis XVI., 1793. Louis Philippe, 1850.

1819, Victoria.

Duke of Orleans, 1842.

1841, Prince of Wales.

Count of Paris, 1894.

1865, Duke of York.

1869, Duke of Orleans.

1894, Edward Albert.

Louis the Black, 1489.

Alexander, 1514.

Louis, 1532.

Wolfgang, 1569.

Philip Louis, 1614. John, 1604. Charles, 1600.

See Genealogy XIII.

Wolfgang William, 1653. Augustus, 1632. Christian I., 1654.

14 Philip William, 1690. Christian Augustus, 1708. Christian II., 1717.

15 John William, 1716. 16 Charles Philip, 1742. Christian III., 1735.

John Christian, 1733. Frederick Michael, 1769.

17 Charles Theodor, 1799. I. 18 Maximilian I., 1825.

He inherited Bavaria in 1777.

II. Louis I., 1868.

III. Maximilian II., 1864. Otto King of Greece (1832-1862), 1867. Luitpold, Regent of Bavaria.

IV. Louis II., d. 1886. V. Otto, b. 1848.

Louis, b. 1845.

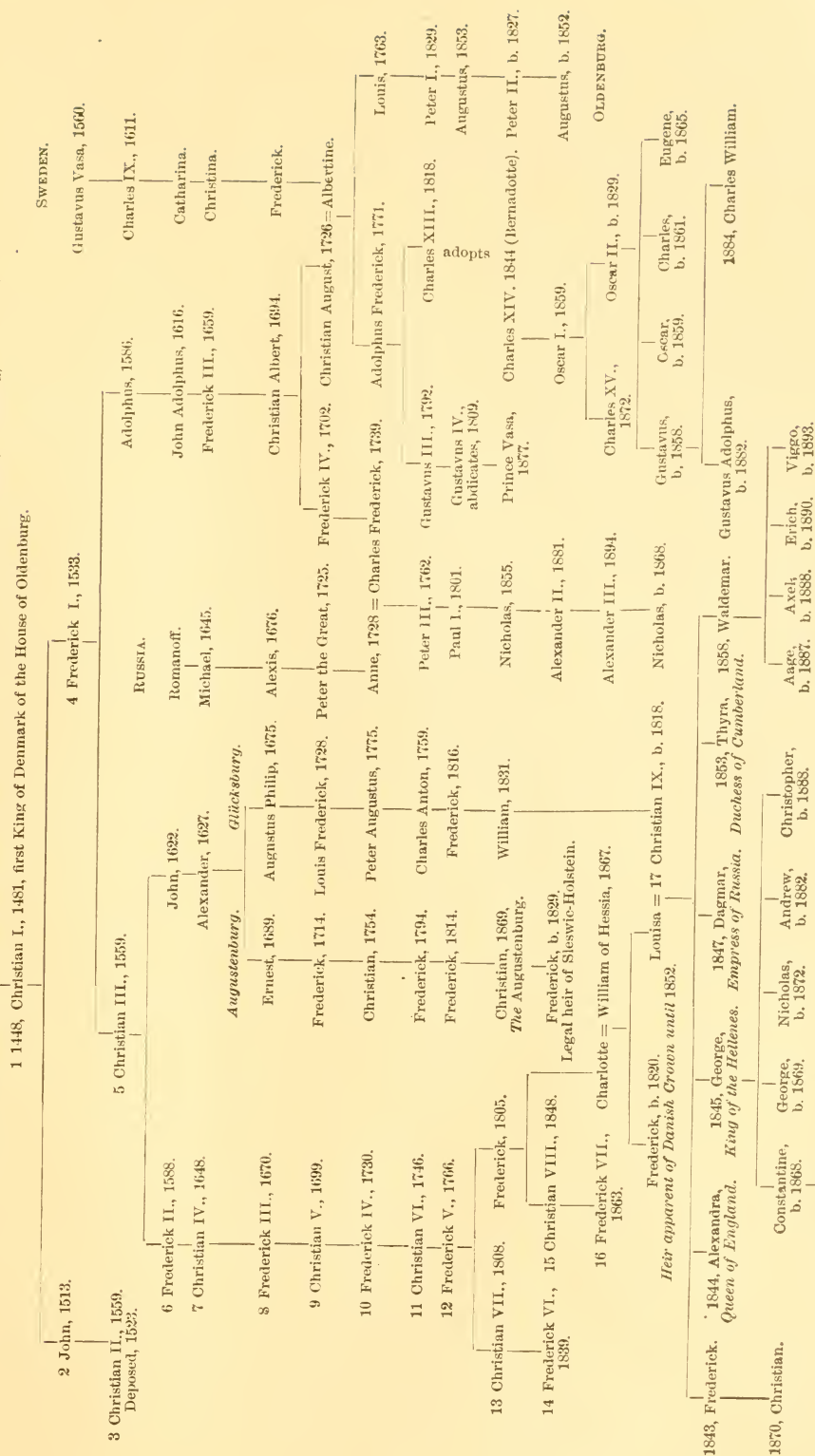
Leopold, b. 1846.

Arnulf, b. 1882.

1869, Rupert. 1880, George. 1884, Henry.

## XVII.—GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF OLDENBURG, ILLUSTRATING THE DANISH SUCCESSION IN 1863.

Dietrich of Oldenburg, whose lineal descendants occupy four thrones of Europe—Russia, Denmark, Oldenburg, and Greece,



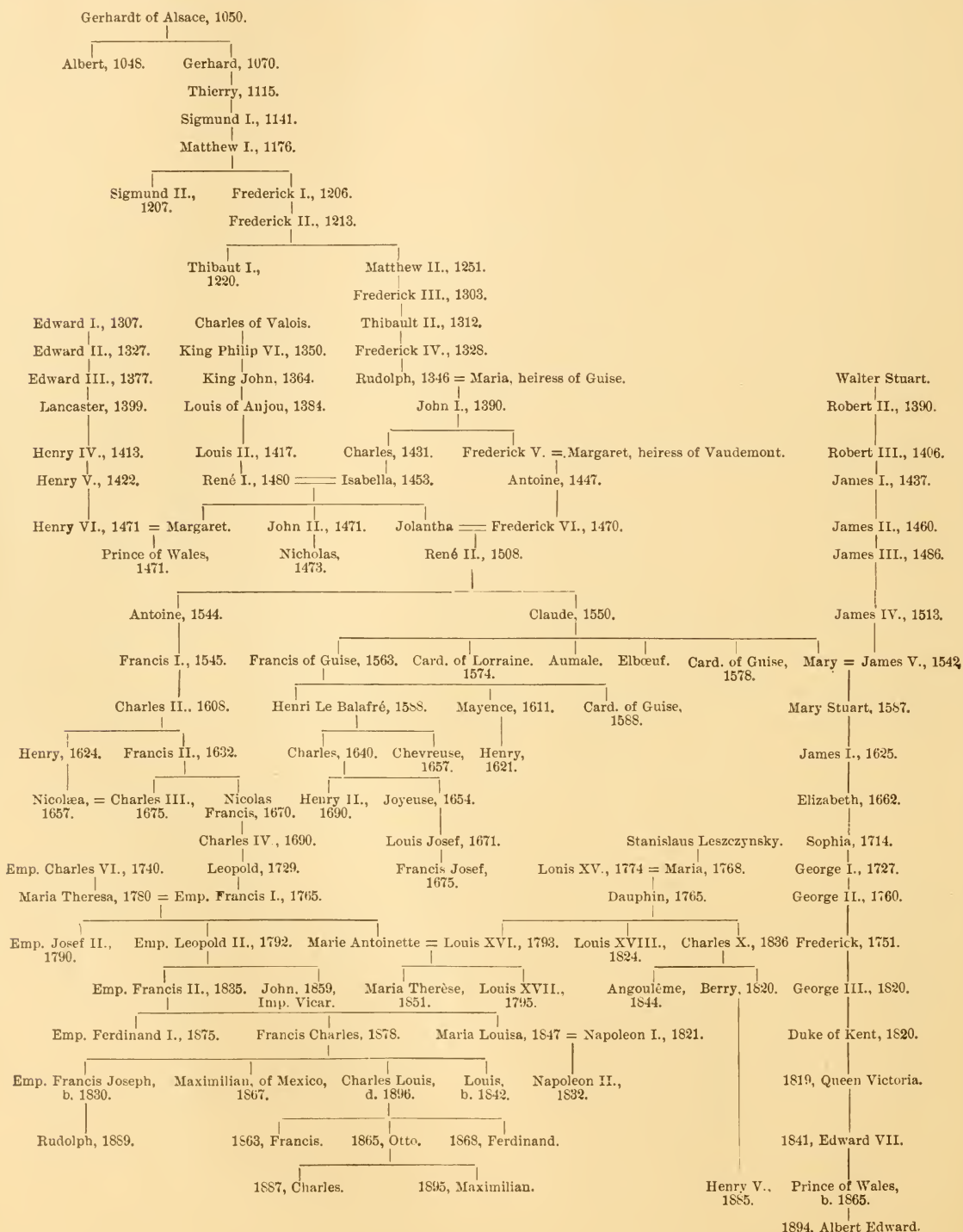
DENMARK.

SWEDEN.



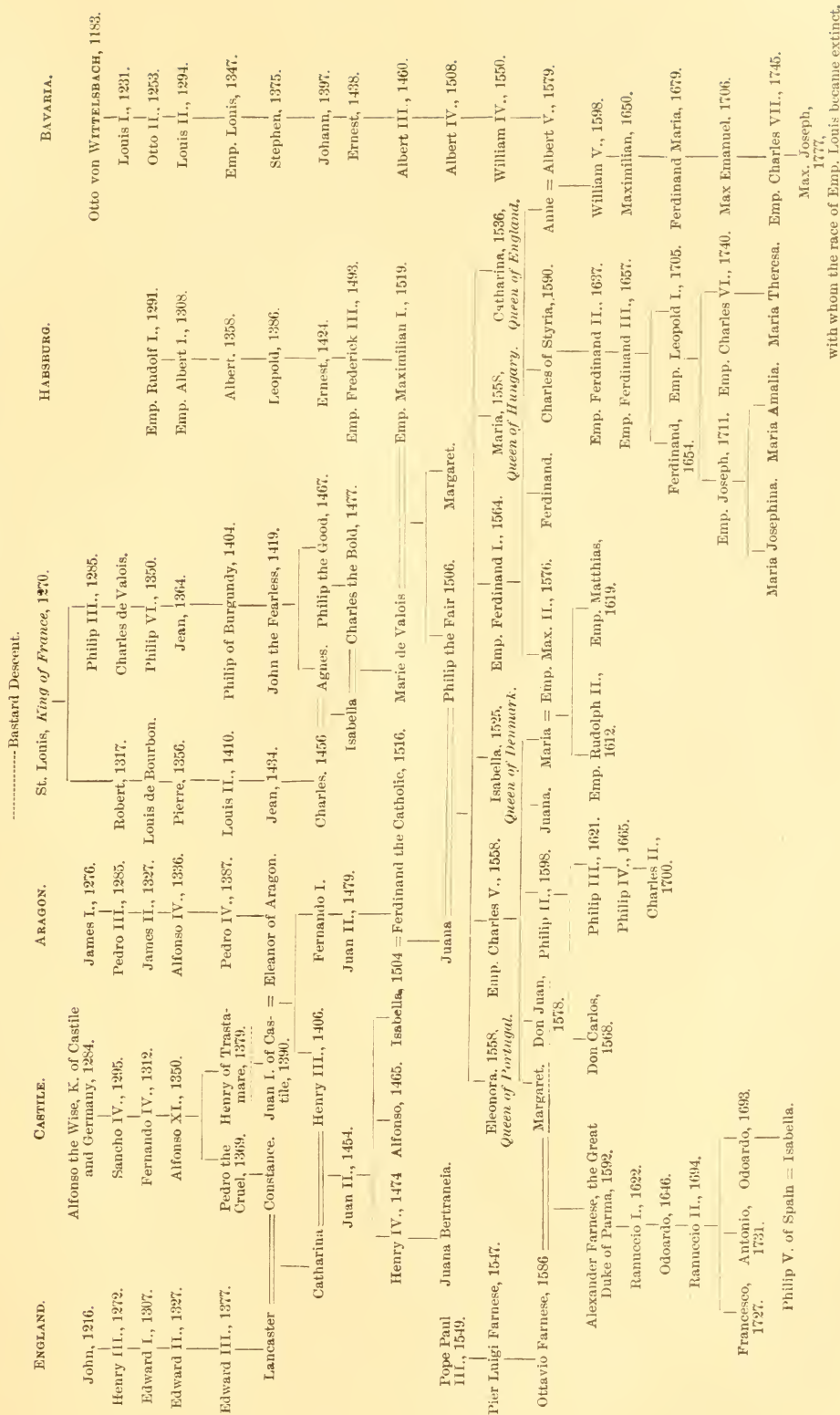
# XVIII.—GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF LORRAINE AND OF ITS TWO BRANCHES, THE ELDER NOW ON THE AUSTRIAN THRONE, THE YOUNGER THE CELEBRATED HOUSE OF GUISE.

Showing also its relations with the Plantagenets, Stuarts, Valois, Habsburgs, and Bourbons. Stanislaus Leszczyński having renounced the Polish Throne received as compensation Lorraine and Bar, which at his death should devolve upon France.



# XIX.—THE ANCESTORS AND DESCENDANTS OF THE IMPERIAL BROTHERS CHARLES V. AND FERDINAND I.,

THE FOUNDERS OF THE SPANISH AND AUSTRIAN LINES OF THE HOUSE OF HABSBURG, SHOWING ALSO THE BAVARIAN CLAIMS TO THE HABSBURG INHERITANCE IN 1740, AND THE ANCESTORS AND DESCENDANTS OF THE GREAT PARMA.

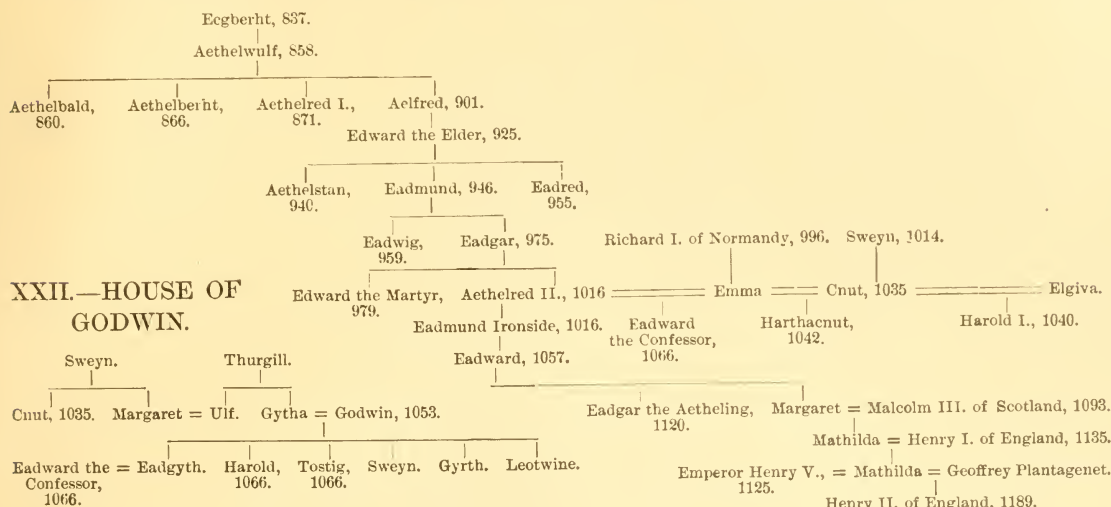




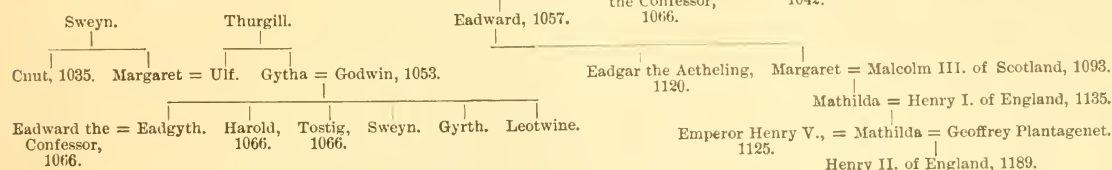


## XXI.—GENEALOGY OF THE KINGS OF THE HOUSE OF CERDIC, FROM THE REIGN OF ECGBERHT, 802 A.D.

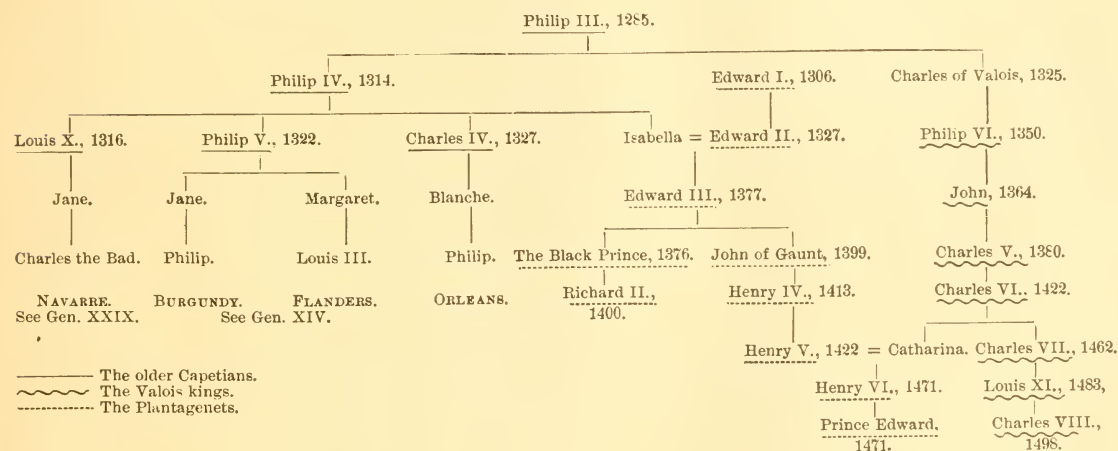
**EXPLANATION.**—Year after a name is the year of death; Year under a name signifies the person died without issue. Aethelred had from Elfrida, Edmond Ironside; from Emma, Edward the Confessor. Cnut had from Emma, Harthacnut; from Elgiva, Harold I.



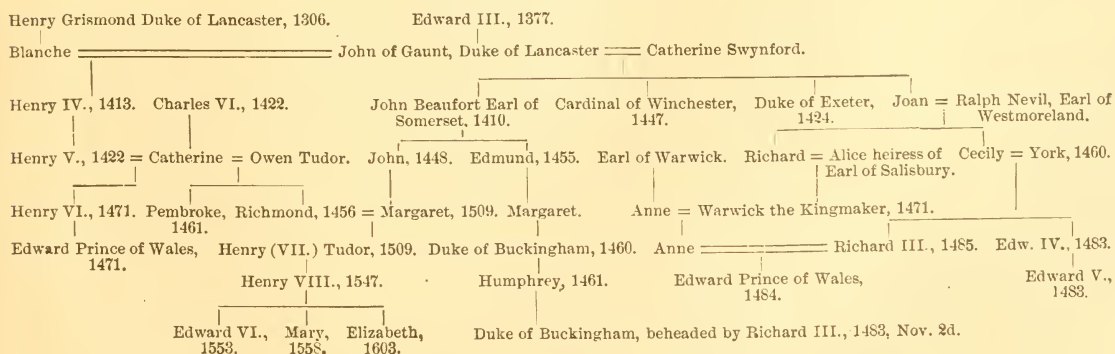
## XXII.—HOUSE OF GODWIN.



## XXIII.—THE FRENCH SUCCESSION IN 1328 AND 1422.



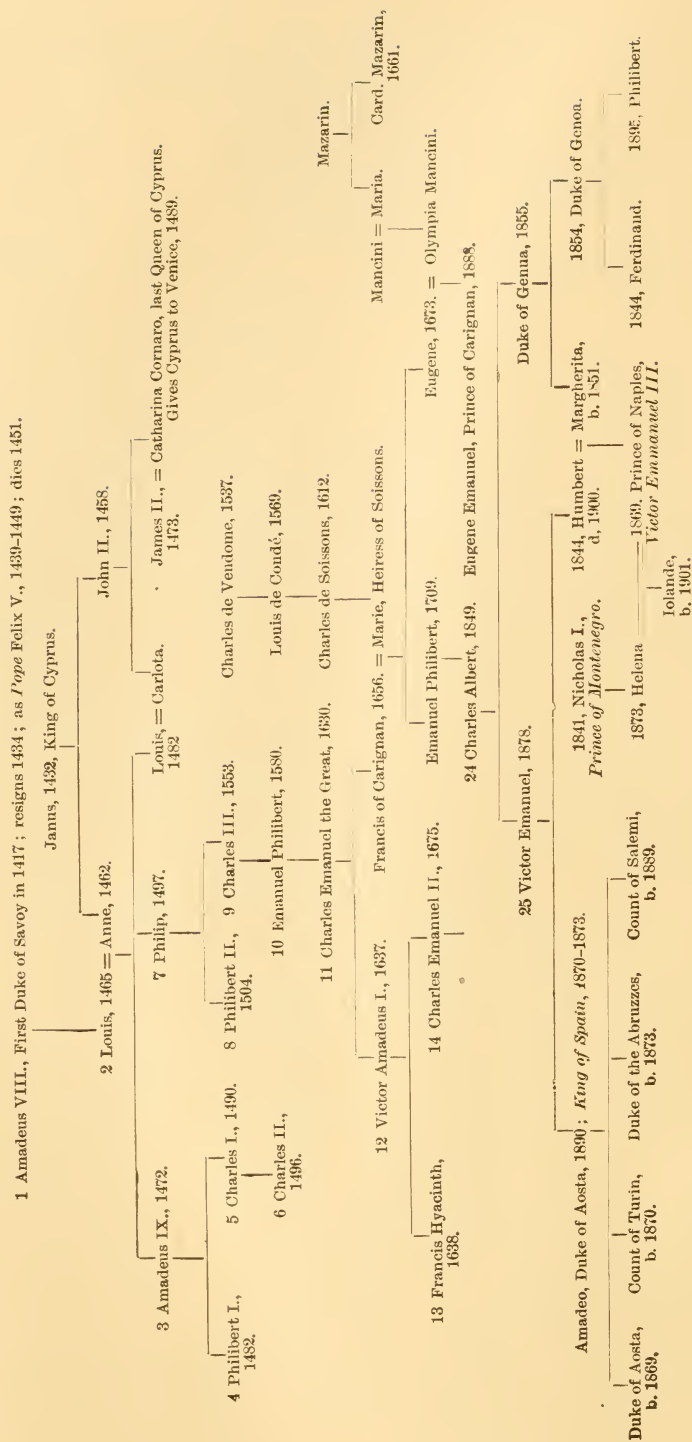
## XXIV.—GENEALOGY OF THE TUDORS, EXPLAINING THEIR CLAIM TO THE ENGLISH THRONE.





# XXVII.—GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF SAVOY.

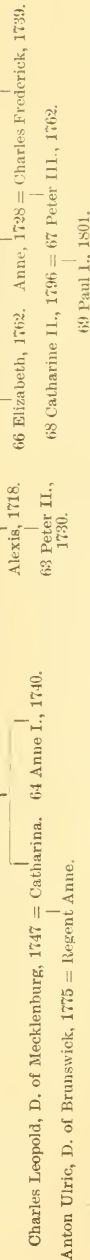
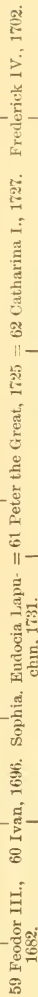
1417-1730, Dukes of Savoy, numbers 1-17. 1720-1861, Kings of Sardinia, numbers 18-24. Since 1861, Kings of Italy, numbers 25, 26.  
 Showing also their relations to the Kings of Cyprus and the paternal and maternal descent of Prince Eugene.



# XXVIII.—GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE SOVEREIGNS OF RUSSIA, FROM 1613 TO 1902.

The House of Romanoff, 1613-1762.      The House of Oldenburg, 1762-2.

Roman, Ancestor of the ROMANOFF Family.



Count Haucke.

Louis II., Grand Duke of Hessa, 1848.

Princess of Battenberg, = Alexander, 1888.  
d. 1895.

Louis III., 1877.

Charles, 1877. Mary, 1880

Constantine, 1892.

Christian IX., King of Denmark.

Queen Victoria.

1857, Alexander,  
*Prince of Bulgaria*,  
1879-1887.

Henry, 1896 = Beatrice. Alice, 1878 = Louis IV., 1893.

73 Alexander III., 1894.

1847, Vladimir.

1853, Mary,  
*Duchess of Saxe-Coburg Gotha*.

1860, Paul = Alexandra,  
d. 1891.

George,  
b. 1868.

Duke of Sparta,  
b. 1868.

1865, York.

1844, Alexandra,  
*Princess of Wales*.

1847, Dagmar,  
*wife of Alexander III*.

1886, Alexander,  
*Prince of Bulgaria*,  
b. 1868.

Ernest Louis, 1872  
b. 1863.

George, Michael,  
d. 1894, b. 1878.

Cyril, Boris,  
b. 1876, b. 1877.

Alfred,  
b. 1871.

Dimitri,  
b. 1891.

George,  
b. 1890.

Alexander,  
b. 1893.

Edward Albert,  
b. 1894.

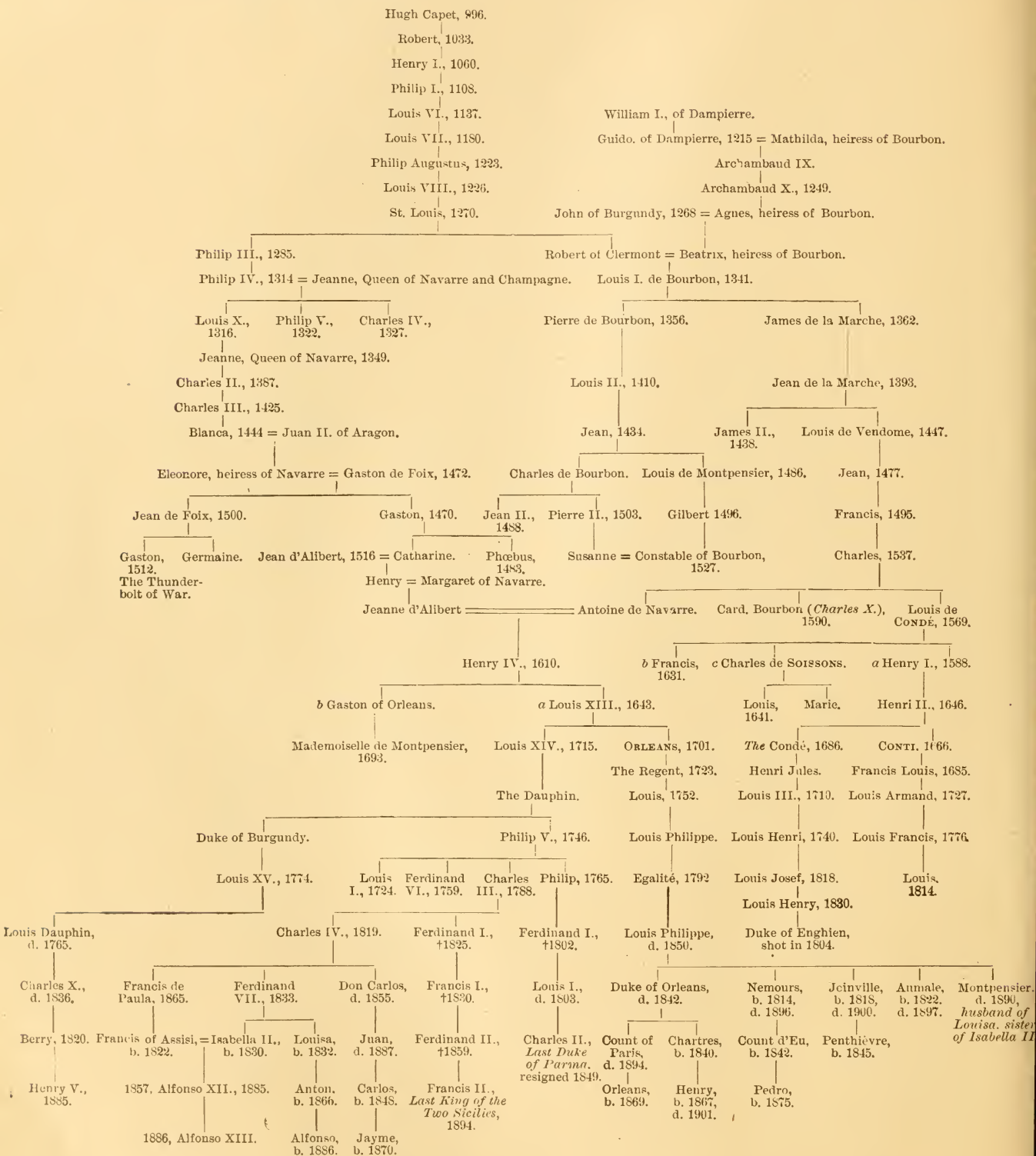
74 Nicholas II.

1895, Olga.

1895, Olga.



Showing also the Sovereigns of Navarre since 1284, and all the Kings of France except those of the House of Valois, for whom see Gen. XXVI



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